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THE EASTERN DEADLOCK.

THE deadlock in the Adriatic has drawn upon England A during the past week mingled ridicule and querulous remonstrances from half the organs of European opinion for having led the Powers into the imbroglio. The resolution of the Porte and the irresolution of Montenegro may probably have been equally surprising to Mr. GLADSTONE. But Prince NICHOLAS does not usually act or refuse to act without counsel from above, and the suggestion that the scene of the naval operations should be transferred from scene of the naval operations should be transferred from the Adriatic to the Sea of Marmora might be in many ways convenient to Russia. That an English fleet should threaten Constantinople because the SULTAN refuses to abandon his subjects to the hated sway of the Montenegrins might seem a thing too monstrous to be even imagined. But all impossibles become possible in face of Mr. Gladstone's blind obstinacy and reckless partisanship, unchecked by Parliament and encouraged by the noisiest. In Gladstone's blind obstinacy and reckless partisanship, unchecked by Parliament and encouraged by the noisiest, if not the most respectable or trustworthy, expressions of public opinion. For this reason, if for no other, it may seem to be unwise of the Sultan to give any excuse for extreme action either at Dulcigno or elsewhere, inasmuch as the letter of his engagements is against him, and therefore the Powers in their quarrel with Turkey have at present legal right on their side. The Albanians, as long as they were principals in the dispute, although they had no diplomatic standing, seemed to have a moral claim to consideration. In theory, districts, provinces, and even separate races and languages are unknown to international law. Governments only recognize Governments, which are supposed exclusively to represent and absolutely to control all their respective subjects. In conformity with precedent, the Turkish Plenipotentiaries at Berlin were entitled, if their concession was subsequently ratified, to transfer to Montenegro any territory which was nominally included in the Empire. The other parties to the treaty had a corresponding right to exact parties to the treaty had a corresponding right to exact the performance of its conditions. Whatever might be the sentiments of the Albanians, the Porte was both authorized and bound to enforce the stipulated surrender, and, in its default, the Great Powers might execute the decisions of the Congress. The case was not sub-stantially altered by subsequent transactions. The agreement which was negotiated by Count Coeff provided a substitute for parts of the district ceded by the treaty, and a second transaction of the same kind ultimately designated Dulcigno as the subject-matter to which the provisions of the treaty were to apply. The Sultan had in both the successive negotiations acknowledged the validity of the treaty. It was not at that time suggested that the inhabitants of the ceded district were in any way to be consulted or considered. The Ambassadors at Constantinople were from time to time assured that the surrender would be in due time completed, though successive delays were proposed and allowed on plausible grounds. The Turkish troops at Scutari were ostensibly charged with the duty of overawing local malcontents who might throw impediments in the way of the transfer. By degrees greater and greater stress was laid on the repugnance of the local tribes to the sovereignty of the Montenegrins, who were said to be their hereditary enemies. Modern public opinion has diverged widely from the rales of international law; and it was and is felt that it is often an

abuse of power to change the allegiance of any population

without its consent.

It is now clear that the Albanians are not really principals in the dispute. The number of their forces is variously estimated, but it seems doubtful whether they are either able or willing to oppose a single-handed resistance to the Montenegrins. There can be no question that the Mahometan part of the population regards the cassion with reprograms: and probably the Catholic cession with repugnance; and probably the Catholic tribes would prefer the nominal supremacy of the Sultan to incorporation in an Orthodox community; but it is un-certain whether any warlike operations would have been necessary if the Turkish Government had complied with necessary if the Turkish Government had complied with its undertaking. The Montenegrin commander professed confidence in his ability to overcome the Albanians, but he was afraid of the superior arms and discipline of the Turkish regular troops. Riza Pasha, who seems to be a loyal soldier, informed the emissary of the English Admiral that he had no orders to surrender any territory, and he is undoubtedly discharging his duty in opposing invasion by force. It is not his business to interpret or to execute the Treaty of Berlin, but to obey the commands of his Sovereign and to repel attacks on his domin-The SULTAN has by his latest communication placed himself formally in the wrong. He might have alleged, in extenuation of his neglect to perform his obligations, inability or unwillingness to compel the transfer of a Mussulman population to infidel rule. The allied Powers would still have been technically within their right; but the moral justice of their cause would have been as disputable as the soundness of their policy is actually doubtful. The Sultan has been ill advised in placing his default on other grounds, and in imposing arbitrary and irrelevant conditions on and in imposing arbitrary and irrelevant conditions on the discharge of his obligations.

It is said that the SULTAN drew up with his own hand the document in which he defies the European Powers.
The declaration is on its face not without dignity and plausibility; but it amounts to a direct violation of the Treaty of Berlin. The Powers are required as a preliminary condition of the surrender of Dulcigno to abandon the present deepen and they are also asked to prethe naval demonstration, and they are also asked to promise that it shall not be repeated. Minor stipulations as to securities for the civil and religious rights of the new subjects of Montenegro are only inserted as matters of form. It is conjectured that the audacious demand for the withdrawal of the fleet was suggested by an apprehension that after the surrender of Dulcigno the combined squadron would sail to the Gulf of Volo for the purpose of squadron would sail to the Chil of Void for the purpose of enforcing the decision of the late Conference of Berlin. If such an operation is intended, it will not be in any way impeded by the Turkish protest. If it is true that MUSURUS PASHA has on this question been the chiefadviser of the SULTAN, PASHA has on this question been the chiefadviser of the SULTAN, he has made a bad use of his long experience of English feeling and opinion. It is true that the naval demonstration, with its probable consequence of war with Turkey, is widely and justly disapproved; but the imprudence of a collision with united Europe is not less obvious. The contumacy of the Porte and the Palace has been generally attributed to a belief that the existing concert would be the properties the imprediate conscious. not survive the immediate occasion. It would have been prudent to wait till the hope of disagreement was realized. The Governments which are supposed to be less zealous than their allies in the cause of Montenegro will scarcely instruct their Admirals to withhold co-operation when

hostilities have commenced, though it seems to be certain that the French contingent will merely look on. The SULTAN has practically played into Mr. GLADSTONE'S hands, though he has falsified the repeated and confident prediction that the concert of Europe would ensure submission.

If the Turks have disregarded the rules of prudence and the stipulations of treaties, it by no means follows that the policy of the English Government is either wise or justi-fiable. Two years ago a war with Russia was with great difficulty avoided by the late Ministry. Mr. GLADSTONE and his colleagues have probably precipitated a rupture with Turkey in the absence of any obligation of interest or duty. The right of enforcing a treaty imposes no cor-responding burden. England was not bound to provide responding burden. England was not bound to provide the Montenegrins with additional territory, even if they had been, as their enthusiastic patron called them, the most heroic race in Europe. In one sense it has been a considerable diplomatic achievement to unite the Great Powers in an enterprise devised by England for the benefit of Russia; but the hope that the object would be peaceably attained has been signally disappointed. The present crisis retrospectively illustrates the alleged error of Lord Beaconsfield and Lord Derry in refusing to sign the Berlin Memorandum. That much-disputed document provided for the contingency of armed interference in Turkey; and though the Liberal party at the time almost unanimously approved the decision of the Government, some of their leaders have since declared that the neglect of an opportunity to arrange European concert was the cause of the long-prepared Russian in-vasion and of all the complications which have ensued. It is impossible to determine whether ABDUL AZIZ would have been more amenable to combined pressure than his timid and subtle successor; but at that time the Turkish Government was formidable by land and by sea, and the Mahometan population was more likely than at present to deem itself invincible. The SULTAN might or might not have yielded to threats; but, if he had resisted, the alternative would, as at present, have been an unprovoked war. Four years ago no considerable party in England had remounced the traditions of national policy which have still many supporters. It was not till after the date of the Berlin Memorandum that the Bulgarian agitation drove all the sentimentalists and almost all the democrats into the arms of Russia. The three EMPERORS who contemptated the advantage of the sentimental that the Memorandum that the sentimental than the se tuously demanded the adhesion of England to the Memorandum at twenty-four hours' notice already meditated a forcible occupation of some of the Turkish provinces. Those who censured the course of Lord Derby have always relied on the efficacy of the threat which might then have been addressed to Turkey. After all the losses of the war the Sultan seems determined to yield nothing except to force. He may probably succeed in disclosing the incomplete or precarious character of the European concert; but there will be little satisfaction in convicting Mr. GLADSTONE of rashness, if an opportunity is afforded to Russia of once more intervening in Turkish affairs.

THE MAIWAND DESPATCHES.

THE despatches giving the story of the Maiwand disaster have been published in India, and the substance of these despatches has been telegraphed to England. Their publication in India has been accompanied by a criticism of the Viceeov and the Commanderin-Chief, both of whom pronounce the despatches to be eminently unsatisfactory. It is said that they do not give any account of the precautions taken to ascertain the position and strength of Ayour, and that they do not sufficiently explain the causes of the disaster. It might be added that they do not explain why the battle of Maiwand was ever fought. What General Primeose does tell us is that in June the Political Agent was of opinion that active support should be given to the Wall, who was then with his troops at Girishk. He therefore recommended that a brigade of infantry, a regiment of cavalry, and a battery of horse-artillery should be despatched to the Helmund. On the 1st of July the Government sanctioned this step; but ordered that the Helmund should not be crossed, that there should be no weakening of the Khelati-Ghilzai garrison, or of the line of communications, but that reserves should be pushed forward by forced marches. General Burrows was accordingly sent towards the Helmund

on the 3rd of July, only somewhat upwards of 2,400 men being left in Candahar. But General Primrosh considered his position there perfectly safe, as he expected to be strongly reinforced in rather less than three weeks. He left General Burrows to act according to the best of his judgment, but gave him orders, under directions from Simla, to prevent Ayour slipping past Candahar without being attacked. Apparently these orders were given while it was supposed that the troops of the Wall would fight loyally by the side of the British force. But they were not in any way altered after the defection of the large part of the Wall's troops became known. The position of General Burrows, therefore, was this. His superiors knew that the British force under his command was very small, that no reliance could be placed on the support of the Wall's troops, while they did not know where Ayour was or how many men and gans he had with him; and under these circumstances General Burrows was ordered not to let Ayour slip past Candahar without being attacked.

General Burrows says that, owing to the mutiny in the Wall's army, the political influence of the British was at an end and every man's hand was against him. He could not procure any trustworthy information; but at last he heard that Ayous was making for Maiwand, and he determined to try to intercept him there. He was obliged to take with him all his stores and baggage, as he could not leave anything behind him in a hostile country without a guard, and his force was too small to permit him to divide it. He set out in the early morning of July 27th, and, after he had marched eight miles, the enemy was in sight, at a distance of five miles. General Burrows estimated the force op-posed to him at about twenty-five thousand men, or a superiority to his own force of about ten to one; but he determined at once to attack. He got his men into position with the guns in the centre, the cavalry on the left, and the infantry on the right. Some time for repose was given to the men, and then, at 11.45, the battle was begun y Lieutenant Maclaine's advanced guns. It is said that this officer acted without instructions, and that orderlies were sent to recall him, but that it was too late. For more than two hours the British troops maintained what for an attacking army may be called a successful defence. attacking army may be called a successful defence. The artillery, we are told, made excellent practice, the cavalry held that of the enemy in check, and the infantry kept up a steady fire. At 2.30 the enemy made his serious attack. The Ghazis made a rush on the centre to seize the guns. The fire with which they were received failed to check them, and they got possession of two advanced guns. Then came the critical moment. If the infantry had but stood firm all might still have grove wall in the conjugue of firm, all might still have gone well, in the opinion of General Burrows, and his opinion is confirmed by that of the Commander-in-Chief. But the infantry gave way, and, commencing from the left, rolled up like a wave to the right. The only hope was that the cavalry might retrieve the day; but they had been so terribly shaken by the artillery force to which they had been exposed that they were utterly demoralized. They would not follow their officers; and, although a portion of the cavalry made a charge, this charge was only faintly delivered, and produced no effect. The British force was utterly routed, duced no effect. The British force was utterly routed, and all the General could do was to try to make something like an orderly retreat. Fortunately the enemy did not pursue with any vigour, although they had every encouragement to do so, as the British officers could not get their men to rally and face the enemy; and it is mentioned as an exceptional fact that one officer was so far successful as to get his men to fire two or three volleys during the After nightfall the force was fired upon from every village through which it passed until it reached Koheran, and General Burrows states that the guns were lost because Lieutenant MACLAINE waited to fire another round after he had received orders to limber up and retire.

The telegraphic summary informs us that the Vicerov considers the despatches as meagre and unsatisfactory, and as leaving the Government in ignorance of the true facts of the case and the real causes of the reverse. Lord Ripon cannot be supposed to have used language so severe without good reason. General Burrows tells his story, and certainly up to a point it is an intelligible story. He was under positive orders to attack, however large the force of the enemy might be, so as to prevent him from slipping past Candahar. He came to the conclusion that unless the enemy was checked at Maiwand he would slip past Candahar. He therefore attacked. His attack was from the outset a defence, and

when the enemy made a serious attack his troops were paniestricken and could not be got to fight. Some of the troops fought splendidly, and the VICEROY pays a deserved troops fought splendidly, and the Viceror pays a deserved tribute to the gallantry of the 66th Regiment and the artillery; but the bulk of the cavalry and the infantry were demoralized, and too frightened to hold their ground. The army was utterly beaten; but it was not annihilated, because the enemy did not pursue. This is the story of the battle of Maiwand, and it certainly seems to give at least the outline of what happened. What it does not explain is why General BURROWS fought when he did and where he did. It does not explain why he fought in circumstances which cave every advantage of position to circumstances which gave every advantage of position to the enemy and none to him. Subsequent reports from the enemy and none to him. Subsequent reports from officers of the force of General ROBERTS have made it clear that Avous had much more than a vast superiority of numbers on his side. He had much stronger artillery, and above all his troops were so placed that they were well sheltered, and were protected by so many natural and artificial obstacles that it would have been almost impossible to disloge them. The British force was obliged to act on the defensive, not only because it was small, but because it had no chance of attacking successfully. It was, on the other hand, very unfavourably placed for defence. The cavalry was so exposed that it was for defence. The cavalry was so exposed that it was cut to pieces by the enemy's fire before it could be brought into action. It held the enemy's cavalry in check for a time, but while it was checking the enemy's cavalry it was being crushed by the enemy's artillery. There can be no doubt that the enemy lost severely during the engagement. The dead bodies found by those who visited the spot after the victory of General ROBERTS sufficiently testify to this. The British artillery made good practice, and the fire of the British infantry while it did fire was effective. The few British troops who died rather than run away sold their lives dearly. But the rather than run away sold their lives dearly. But the enemy could afford to lose heavily, and when it became obvious that the British were being inevitably forced to fight a merely defensive engagement, the vast numerical superiority of the Afghans told. All the history of our wars with semi-barbarous tribes teaches us that the armies of such tribes, although liable to yield to the resolute attack of a comparatively small force of civilized, disciplined, and well-armed men, will also show the greatest gallantry in attacking a small force of this kind when they have it at a disadvantage. It was perhaps natural enough that General Burrows should not suppose that his troops would behave as badly as they behaved at Maiwand, though the disinclination of Bombay troops to meet Afghans is no novelty. But, on the other hand, it would seem, so far as is as yet known, that, from want of proper precautions in obtaining information as to the strength of Ayous's position, from mere blundering, or from some other cause, he chose to make his men tight in circumstances which put them to a great disadvantage.

AGITATION AND MURDER.

LORD MOUNTMORRES is the second Irish peer who has been murdered within two or three years. It is said that he had lately been engaged in disputes with his tenants; but there is no reason to assume that he was in the wrong. It is highly probable that in opposing their claims and prejudices he may have consulted their best interests, while he had the courage to assert the rights of property on which civilization and the possible improvement of Ireland depend. Mr. BENCE JONES, in an admirable account of the administration of his own estate, published in Macmillan's Magasine for last April, fully explains the process by which a firm and sagacious landowner combines the abolition of poverty and distress with the increase of his own revenue. It is not surprising that he are the content of the Lend League and the content of the Lend League. has since been held up by the orators of the Land League has since been held up by the orators of the Land League as a fit object of popular vengeance; but fortunately he is not an inhabitant of Connanght. Mr. Tuke, in the account of his visit to some of the distressed Western districts, is never tired of expatiating on the evils which result from the non-residence of landlords. His strictures on the neglect of their duties by absentees would be more effective if residents were not exposed to greater unpopularity and to serious danger. Lord Leitelm was personally unpopular, both through faults of temper and demeanour, and because he was a beneficent if not a beneficent demeanour, and because he was a beneficent if not a bene-

for their good, but he insisted on obedience to his will. The agitators have consequently not concealed their approval of the murder; and one of them had the audacity to defend the crime in the House of Commons. There was apparently no reason to suppose that the attacks which have been made by the accomplices of assassination on the character of Lord LEITRIM can, even by the shame less gang of demagogues, be repeated in the case of Lord MOUNTMORRES; but the priest of the parish, a well-known Land League agitator, took occasion on the Sunday following the murder to accuse the victim of being a bad landlord. The same person professed to believe that his flock were innocent of the crime, although some of them trampled publicly in his blood, and although the under-taker's men were afraid to put the body in the coffin. Every parishioner will, with or without reason, be satisfied that his priest approves the murder, in which all the neighbours are probably accomplices.

The murder of a peer is not a greater crime than the The murder of a peer is not a greater crime than the murder of a peasant; but it may possibly attract more attention to the misgovernment which renders such atrocities possible and common. Neither political party is entitled to immunity from the charge of cultivating popularity by deference to cant. Every Minister in turn pretends or fancies an almost insuperable objection to any suspension of the liberties which are supposed to be a part of the Constitution. A true statesman would feel that it was his paramount and transcendent. would feel that it was his paramount and transcendent duty to protect life and property, having first obtained the authority which Parliament has the constitutional right to bestow. Murderers are allowed to buy weapons, sometimes from Government stores, with the notorious purpose of using them against offenders who violate the rules enacted by lawless mobs at the instance of the Par-NELLS, the BIGGARS, and the SULLIVANS. The balance of gain and loss is variously estimated by the representatives of conflicting interests and by impartial observers. A land-owner is shot in the back by hired assassins as he rides over his own estate; but a member of the Cabinet is cordially welcomed on a visit to Donegal by assemblages which in turn receive his assurance that four at least of the Ministers are bent on redressing the supposed grievances of the Irish tenantry. It was probably by an over-sight that Mr. CHILDERS distinguished himself, Mr. GLAD-STONE, Mr. BRIGHT, and Mr. FORSTER from all their colleagues. The PRIME MINISTER and Mr. FORSTER are primarily responsible for the continued determination to allow the spread of crime and anarchy in preference to the provision of remedies outside the range of ordinary law. Mr. FORSTER indeed at the end of the Session recognized as possible the contingency of applying to Parliament for extraordinary powers; but he was careful to add that he would simultaneously promote legislation for the punishment of landlords who might exercise their legal rights in such a manner as to incur his moral disapprobation. In extreme need measures are to be taken to repel the assaults of the wolves on the fold; but impartial justice requires that corresponding penalties shall be inflicted on sheep suspected of a tendency to stray.

It is true that murders might from time to time have been perpetrated even if the Government, preferring its duty to its own interest, had continued or extended the Peace Preservation Act; but obstacles would have been placed in the way of the acquisition of firearms, and the police would have been enabled to exercise a more effective supervision over suspected persons. It is well known that the executors of the popular will are always strangers hired at a cheap rate to commit, amid general approval, the foulest of crimes. The presence of professional assassins in any district would attract notice, and sometimes it might lead to the precautionary apprehension of the criminals. Experience has shown that the various Coercion Acts have at all times more or less perfectly attained their object. In case of need the Government for the time being ought to demand from Parliament, as a condition of retaining office, the further power of suspending trial by jury, if murderers are still permitted to escape; but it will probably not be necessary to proceed to such an extreme. Juries have at present few opportunities of failing to discharge their duties, because evidence is seldem forthcoming against agrarian murderers. In some cases the criminals are well known to the police; but it is not surprising that witnesses are afraid to tell the truth. An impudent ruffian, a waiter at an inn, a few days since volent despot. He governed his tenantry on the whole openly threatened a witness in the presence of the magistrates who were hearing the charge. The lowest classes in Ireland readily learn from their self-appointed teachers the lesson that the distinction between right and wrong is most effectually obliterated by the unrestricted expression of immoral doctrines. In less abnormal states of society men hardly know how largely virtue and conscience depend on tacit assumption and on decent reticence. The Decalogue would lose, not its value, but its influence on popular belief, if it were habitually regarded as a series of open questions. When mischievous sophists have once reduced commandments to the level of logical conclusions, stump orators have no difficulty in producing arguments on the other side which are good enough for the mob.

If crimes of violence cannot be wholly prevented, it is at least possible to suppress their principal cause. The wicked declarations of the Land League furnish to the demoralized audience more than sufficient reasons murdering landlords, and for maltreating peasant violators of the agrarian code. Neither Mr. PARNELL nor his lay and clerical accomplices recommend—perhaps they scarcely desire—the murder of the owners, whom they scarcely desire—the murder of the owners, whom merely wish to deprive of their property; but they cannot fail to know that their disciples will employ their own methods of practising the doctrines which the familiar methods of practising the doctrines which the agitators preach. Mr. Parnell openly vindicated the brutal murder of Mr. Boyd by remarking that it would have been unnecessary if the people had been properly organized. As they had delayed their adherence to the Land League, it was, it seems, necessary to murder, not a landlord who asserted his rights, but his innocent son. The tenants are again and again exhorted to defy not only the law, but the common rules of honesty, by refusing to pay their stipulated rents, unless in their own discretion they consider them just. The orators of course intimate to hearers sufficiently intelligent to understand a fraudulent hint that the rent is to be reduced to small or expressent proportions. reduced to small or evanescent proportions. As a further encouragement to dishonesty, the occupiers are told that, if the landlords decline their present offers, the League will probably a year hence decree the total abolition of rent. A burglar might, with equal regard to morality, rent. A burglar might, with equal regard to morality, be encouraged to content himself with half the plate in the pantry by the assurance that, if he waited, he should have the whole. There is no use in reasoning with the wilful enemies of law and order, or even in denouncing their guilt. The only public opinion for which they care is that of their associates and their leaders. It is perhaps one degree less hopeless to appeal to the Government which tolerates a revolutionary agitation. No sanguine hopes can be entertained of the result of their deliberations nopes can be entertained of the result of their denoerations on a law for the readjustment of proprietary rights in Ireland. It is extremely doubtful whether the Act of 1870 has done more good or harm, and any future legislation indicated by Mr. GLADSTONE will proceed further in the same direction. Whatever may be the provisions of the future Act, it must recognize some right of property. and it will not relieve the Government from the obligation of protecting the peaceable part of the population. To render murder difficult and dangerous, and to silence incitements to crime, are much more certain and more argent duties than the enactment of the best rural code.

THE PLOT AGAINST THE LIVADIA.

JUST as the excitement about the Watford dynamite was settling down into the condition which precedes absolute oblivion, a fresh scare of the same kind, and probably not unconnected with the former, came from Glasgow. There, as diligent readers of their newspapers are aware, lies, and has for some time been lying, all but ready for sea, a new yacht built for the Czae by some Glasgow shipbuilders. The Livadia is one of the numerous, costly, and it may be added hitherto not very successful, experiments of the indefatigable Admiral Popoff. Upon a huge raft-shaped hull, like an air-cushion, or rather like an inflated John Dory in shape, rises a short superstructure with straight sides, and then a kind of infinitely magnified deckhouse, arranged rather like a sumptuous palace on shore than a confined and awkwardly shaped sea-home. Whether this queer craft will be nautically a success remains to be seen. But she was intended to be something more than a mere pleasure-boat. Her speed was to be very great; her capacity as a troop-ship would, in case of need, be enormous; and, though it would be

difficult to armour-plate her in any way, her great low-lying platform, based on a sort of life-raft, divided into an immense number of compartments, could very easily have heavy artillery mounted on it, and would, at least in theory, be almost unsinkable by shot. Hence the Livadia would be, if she answered her designer's demands on her, a considerable addition, not merely to the Czar's comfort, but to the strength of the Russian navy, and she is all the more likely to be the mark of the attempts of the restless conspirators who are ready to strike anywhere at an exposed and vulnerable point. Moreover it was supposed, at any rate at one time, that the Grand Duke Constantine would himself command the Livadia on the voyage to Russia. Thus a remarkable opportunity of killing divers birds with one stone presented itself to the Nihilists, who, it may be added, are also, since the semi-official statement that the dynamite found at Watford had been in all probability lying there for some days, strongly suspected of the attempt to blow up the North-Western train. The Livadia, it should be observed, from her peculiar construction, offers a good deal of temptation to the particular form of destructive agency supposed to have been adopted.

Of the main facts there seems to be no doubt; which is good deal more than can be said for the former attempt. It is said positively that information was received a week ago from St. Petersburg, and also from Geneva, a great haunt of Russian malcontents, that three men had left London with "Thomas" clocks intended for the destruction of the yacht. These ingenious devices, it may be remembered, are named from, and were first employed by, the author of the Bremen explosion. Nitroglycerine is the explosive agent, and in the case is included a piece of mechanism going by clockwork for as many days as may be thought proper. At the conclusion of the time, and not before, a hammer strikes the detonating fuse connected with the nitroglycerine, and the explosion takes place. Although these clocks have been much talked of, it is not to be supposed that many people have been actually acquainted with them; but there is nothing mysterious in their construction, though whether it is possible to obviate the risk of a premature explosion from some chance con-cussion is indeed not quite clear. In a trading-ship they can of course be concealed very conveniently among parcels of merchandise or passengers' luggage. But a favourite notion as to their use is that they should be concealed among the coals; romance, if not history, going so far as to say that they have been or may be fashioned so as to look like large blocks of the fuel and thus to escape The coal bunkers in the Livadia are in the lowest part of the structure, and therefore excellently situated for the production of the most destructive explosion. Further, it is said that the three persons indicated actually endeavoured to obtain access to the *Livadia*, which was naturally an object of great curiosity to Glasgow sightseers. But warning had been received in time, and, on a different pretext, visitors were excluded. Since that time the Livadia has been guarded with a good deal more care than most ships of war off an enemy's coast. Nobody is admitted into the yard without giving ample explanations; detectives wander about the yard and the ship herself; the coal already on board has been taken out and examined, and everything admitted on board in future is to be poked and probed with the assiduity of the most jealous exciseman. Bold as well as wary as the Nihilists have more than once proved themselves, it not very likely that they will endeavour to elude this vigilance just now. Yet it is only fair to remember that the explosion at the Winter Palace took place under conditions apparently far more prohibitory than any which can apply to the Livadia. An immense number of workmen, sailors, and others must be perforce admitted to the ship for whom it would be very difficult for anyone personally to answer. The examination of the coal more particularly suggests itself as an extremely difficult business to carry out thoroughly. On the whole, it is probable that only those persons who are ardently in quest of a new sensation would care to accept a berth on board the *Livadia* for the trip to the place whence she takes her name, despite the promise of next to no motion, of lofty courts and halls instead of stifling cabins, and even of flower-gardens and other phenomenal luxuries

to relieve and contrast with the monotony of the sea.

It is impossible, taking the facts as stated, to resist the conclusion that the Nihilists are by no means inclined to give up the game, or to abandon their old way of playing it, despite

the comparative lull which the iron hand and velvet glove of General Loris Melikoff have together brought about of late in Russia itself. It is, to say the least, unpleasant, and, to say more than the least, somewhat ungrateful, that they should choose England for the scene of their operations. When they were first suspected of the Watford affair, it was stated that the police had with some simplicity requested the best-known Nihilists resident in England to say whether they had had anything to do with it, and had (strange to say) received an indignant denial, couched in terms exsing a very noble sense of English hospitality. Putting the former incident out of the question, this latest attempt does not seem to argue the existence of such a sense in any very lively form. The Nihilists might argue that they only intended to blow up a Russian ship carrying a Russian crew on the high seas. Unluckily, as their inventor found, nitroglycerine clocks are no more certain to keep time than other clocks, and a premature explosion would have at least unpleasant effects on a large number of perfectly innocent people in Messrs. ELDER's employ. This consideration, however, is one that rarely deters the Con-tinental, or, for the matter of that, the Irish conspirator. Both are too logical to look at anything but the connexion between the end and the means, and we have no doubt that the horror felt by Orsini's English sympathizers at his waste of innocent blood seemed to his Continental friends as much cant as English sympathy with Irish cattle seems to Mr. DILLON and his colleagues. In such cattle seems to Mr. DILLON and his colleagues. In such incidents as the Glasgow scare we pay the penalty for being first a hospitable and then a commercial nation. "If you "did not build ships for the CZAR," the person with the clocks would doubtless say, "I should not blow them up." At the same time it must be admitted that for nervous areas of the property of th At the same time it must be admitted that for nervous people these perpetual scares are rather trying. To blow up something is very easy, and dynamite has not the slightest respect for persons. If Mr. Biggar himself had been in the train at Watford, and the fuse had not gone wrong, all his sympathy with HARTMANN would not have saved him from a practical experience of the method he recommends. Therefore, on the whole, it will be satisfactory when the Livadia and her crew, and her designer and her commander, and all the rest of her belongings, are well out of mander, and all the rest of her belongings, are well out of the country. At present Glasgow, not an attractive place at any time, may be said to have become less attractive than ever. The incident is a serious, and yet at the same time a half ludicrous, commentary on what is grandly called the solidarity of peoples. We have absolutely nothing to do with the quarrels between the Czar of Russia and his subjects, and it is somewhat trying that the field of battle should be transferred to our railways and shippards. Foreigners would tell us that we have only to thank the indiscriminateness of our reception of strangers, and the feebleness of our police. But the triumphs of the Continental police itself over determined malcontents well provided with money cannot be said to have been of late years either numerous or convincing. have been of late years either numerous or convincing. There is, therefore, nothing for it but philosophy and a reliance on the chapter of accidents. The singular duel between the Glasgow police and the three Nihilists will, however, continue to be watched with interest. There is, however, continue to be watched with interest. There is, we suppose, no legal reason for arresting these worthies, and the mere possession of a nitroglycerine clock could hardly be made an offence. But really we have at the present moment quite a sufficient supply of bloodthirsty scoundrels to deal with at home, and it would be obliging of the Nihilists not to make further contributions to the

THE AMERICAN PRESIDENCY.

THE contest for the American Presidency will for two months more furnish mild excitement to a great community; but it has not on any former occasion been found so difficult to create a serious interest in a comparison of the numbers of the two parties. Perhaps the most remarkable incident of the conflict thus far is a speech by General Grant, probably the longest he ever delivered, at a Republican meeting in Ohio, which is chiefly important as assuring the Republican candidate of the undivided support of General Grant's adherents. The candidates on both sides are highly respectable, and there is nothing in their character or history to excite enthusiasm. General Hancock was one of the most meritorious general officers in the Civil War; but his exploits were performed seventeen

or eighteen years ago, and he relies mainly on the support of the combatants whom he helped to defeat. Mr. English, the Democratic candidate for the Vice-Presidency, is acceptable to his supporters because he is reputed to be rich; and his enemies have invented no more formidable imputation on his character than the highly improbable statement that he made his money by buying up bad or doubtful debts. Bolder controversialists asserted that the Democrats would, if they succeeded, recognize the liabilities of the Confederate Government. It is surprising that such a rumour should attract even temporary notice; yet General Hancock has thought it worth while publicly to repudiate a policy which he could certainly, even if he were inclined, not practise as a President. It is doubtful whether such charges or contradictions affect the result of the election, but they amuse public meetings and readers of newspapers, without causing any inconvenient agitation. Probably not a single voter will join or abandon either party through any hope or fear as to imaginary dealings with the Confederate debt. The strongest motive on which the managers of the contest rely is the natural desire to be on the winning side. Nine-tenths of the speeches and newspaper articles which occupy public attention are devoted to the assertion or attempted proof that Hancock or Garfield, as the case may be, is destined to succeed. Writers and orators unconsciously imitate Homer and Millon in the exhibition of balances inclining to the party which is to be eventually victorious. Foreigners not immediately concerned cannot but accept the indigenous estimate of the struggle. As in the Derby or the St. Leger, the question is not which is the best horse, but which is likely to come in first.

Though it is nearly certain that the Southern States will unanimously support the Democratic candidates, the Republicans profess an uncertain hope of rescuing Virginia and South Carolina from their opponents. While in the North they represent themselves as champions of public credit, they watch with interest and sympathy a schism in the Democratic party in Virginia between two local factions respectively known as Funders and Readjusters. The proposed subject of readjustment, which means partial repudiation, is the State debt of Virginia. The Republicans have no hope of conciliating the comparatively honest Funders, but they take frequent opportunities of reminding the Readjusters that the Presidential election will enable them to assert their right of controlling the State Democracy. For the present both sections of the Democratic party in Virginia support HANCOCK and ENGLISH, and they will probably fight out their local quarrel on some other occasion. In South Carolina the Republicans prepare for defeat by complaining beforehand that the majority which they affect to anticipate will be destroyed by fraudulent counting of votes. On the whole, it can scarcely be doubted that the cant phrase of "the solid South" will represent the result of the election. If no defection takes place, the Democrats must also secure about fifty Northern votes. At present their prospects appear, notwithstanding the vapouring of Republican Committees and Clubs, to be not discouraging. No internal feud will be allowed to divide their strength in any Northern State. The Tammany faction in New York has, since the rejection of TILDEN as a candidate, resumed its party allegiance; and the Republicans seem to have no serious hope of carrying the State against the vast Democratic majority in the city. The Democrats, who habitually denounce their opponents as Radicals, include in their ranks the lowest of

In the early deliberations after the Chicago nomination the Republican managers summarily declined all invitations to waste their eloquence and their energies in futile attempts to convert the obstinate South. Party statistics furnished them with the means of estimating their strength in the various Northern States; and, while they gave up New York as lost, and relied on the fidelity to their cause of nearly all the other States, they fastened upon Maine and Indiana as districts which might be lost or won by greater or less exertion. The State elections of September and October were expected to foreshadow the result of the voting for Presidential electors in November; and several of the principal orators were at once detailed for service in Maine. In that State the pure Democrats were in an acknowledged minority; but the Greenback party, or advocates of repudiation in the form of an inconvertible currency, commanded a considerable number of votes. After much negotiation, the Greenbackers and Democrats agreed

to act together under the appropriate title of Fusionists. After a severe contest the Fusionist candidate, Mr. Plaisten, was elected Governor; but the Republicans command both branches of the State Legislature, and they will consequently be able to return the United States Senator on an approaching vacancy. A contest which was all but drawn leaves the result of the Presidential election in the State uncertain; but the Republicans are deeply disappointed, and their adversaries profess corresponding exultation. The Democrats are naturally gratified by even a partial victory in a typical New England State. Their consciences will not be greatly troubled by the allegation that they spent large sums in indirect corruption. The pretended expenditure of 20,000l., even if it had been proved, is not excessive according to the English scale of election expenses. Until lately charges of actual bribery of voters were almost unknown in the United States, and the accusation is still probably in the majority of cases unfounded. Universal suffrage, among many demerits, has the solitary advantage of reducing the pecuniary value of a vote to an amount which is not worth paying or receiving. The enormous expense which is nevertheless incurred consists in the cost of delegations, of public meetings, of flags, of music, and of similar forms of outlay. The Republicans loudly and justly boast of their great superiority of resources. They include in their ranks a large proportion of the wealthier classes, and, as long as they retain office, they have the means of levying a percentage on the salaries of public servants. Both parties are probably at the present moment indulging in lavish expenditure.

Indiana at least will not be lost to either party through want of money or unwillingness to spend it. If the Democrats can carry the State, they will, even if they are defeated in Maine, return their nomines as President. Strangers would be ill advised in forming any confident judgment on the result of the decisive contest. The hardwon victory of the Fusionist candidate in Maine naturally encourages the Democrats, although it is not certain that the Greenback party disposes of any considerable number of votes in Indiana. Mr. English was nominated Vice-President as a citizen of Indiana in compliment to the State; and it may be presumed that he will contribute largely in money, and that he will exercise all his personal influence. Even before General Grant's speech the Democrats had abandoned all hope of carrying the neighbouring State of Ohio; but Indiana will be sufficient for the purpose. The moderate curiosity which attends the struggle will not be satisfied till the State election is decided. There is no such commodity as authentic information. Both parties will boast till assertions cease to be useful, and there is no reason for believing one set of assertions in preference to the opposite. In the meantime many brass bands will the intervals of innumerable speeches mainly devoted to the confident enumeration of doubtful votes. Little oratory is wasted on the supposed as contest which will have but an imperceptible influence on policy and legislation. The Republicans are somewhat more earnestly devoted than their adversaries to the worst of all possible commercial systems; while the Democrats are supposed to offer insufficient guarantees for the rights of the Southern negroes. It is well known to the millions of Americans who excite themselves about the Presidential election that the tariff will be maintained, and that the country will nevertheless continue to prosper, whether HANCOCK or GARFIELD is elected. It is generally believed that the highest or most cultivated class scarcely affects to concern itself with the details of political activity. Equality can only exist at a low level, and attempts to rise above it are naturally considered invidious. Such a country as the United States can afford to dispense with great men, and it contrives to govern itself tolerably well without them. There is comparatively little for the Federal Government to do, because the States, the counties, and the townships manage their own affairs.

THE LONDON SCHOOL BOARD.

THE address of the Charman of the London School Board derives special importance from the time when it was made. The Board has now been at work for ten years, and Sir Charles Reed is able to sum up the results of a decade. It is a period sufficiently long to yield materials for looking at the work of the Board as a whole, and for

seeing what the Board has done, what it has not done, and what it has a prospect of doing hereafter. has been composed for the most part of capable persons, it has enjoyed the command of vast sums of money, and it has been working in a time when the whole current of opinion in all classes is in favour of education. The value of the two latter of these advan-tages must always be taken into account when the work of the Board schools is compared with that of the older voluntary schools. The founders and managers of voluntary schools in old days were conscientious, high-spirited men and women who put themselves to much trouble because they believed they were doing an obvious duty. But they had great difficulty in getting funds, and they had to face a state of things which obstructed education at every turn. The poor had no conception what education meant, and looked on it mainly as a device of the clergyman and the squire for preventing children from earning their bread. The rich often gave money because they were shamed into giving it, but in their hearts thought that learning made the poor conceited and useless. They also did not like the ancient conceited and useless. They also did not like the ancient order of things to be changed, and associated on good grounds the advance of education with the advance of The Act of 1870 was not only a powerful democracy. instrument in altering the mode of regarding education, but was itself a sign that the alteration had begun. The School Board came into existence at a moment when the uses and necessity of education were beginning to be appreciated. Every year it has seen this recognition become more hearty and general. The poor wish to be educated, the rich wish them to be educated. The ratepayers of London pay without serious murmuring the enormous sums which are annually placed at the disposal of the Board. The poor readily send their children to school, and Sir Charles Reed had the satisfaction of describing the eagerness with which parents now flock to the ceremony of opening a new school. Nor does the interest of the poor in education limit itself to attending a ceremony or sending their children to school. They are a ceremony or sending their children to sending their continually making nearer approaches to sending their continually making nearer approaches to sending their children to send to education thus extends to the parents themselves, and they go through various sacrifices to attain this benefit for them-selves and their little ones. The children are to some extent forced to attend, and it was because compulsion worked unexpectedly well in London that it was thought possible to make it general through the country. But although parents cannot help sending their children, and therefore the mere attendance at school of a large number of children does not show much beyond the fact that they are there, there is ample evidence to show that the vast majority of parents are well pleased to have their children at school, and would think themselves going down in the world if their children were not to enjoy the advantages by which the children of their neighbours are profiting.

The total number of children in London between the ages of three and thirteen was computed last Midsummer at 740,000. There has been an increase since 1871 of 120,000 in that number, more than a third of the increase having taken place in Lambeth. The voluntary and having taken place in Lambeth. The voluntary and Board schools together now provide accommodation for half a million children, the provision made by the denominational schools still slightly exceeding that given by the Board schools. Speaking broadly, it may be said that the Board in its ten years of work has given the means of education to a quarter of a million of children. It has acquired 150 freehold sites, and on these sites it has erected, or is erecting, buildings of a substantial, complete, and even imposing kind. As it costs about 9l. per child to give this accommodation, it is not surprising that the rate-payers have had to pay heavily for what has been done. Of course the Board schools are steadily gaining on the voluntary schools, for they have a continued influx of fresh money to work with, and if there is any cause for wonder it is that the denominational schools have held their ground so well as they have done. But they had the buildings to begin with, and compulsion worked in their favour as well as in favour of the Board schools. As the parents found they must send their children somewhere, they were naturally inclined in many cases to gratify the minister of the denomination to which they elonged by sending their children to the school which he recommended. There is now accommodation for rather a larger number than are on the school rolls, and out of the children on the rolls 373,000 attend. The attendance at

the Board Schools appears to be better than at the voluntary schools, and this superiority may be attributed to the greater energy with which the Board enforces its statutory powers to compel attendance. The Board is continually looking up the parents, and the parents, as a rule, comply with the law when its provisions are made known to them. In the half-year ending at Midsummer, the preliminary notice to parents was issued in 36,000 cases, with the result of attendance being given or improved in 26,000 cases. In the same period summonses were taken out in 3,000 cases, and in all these cases the order to attend school was obeyed or a small fine imposed. The Education Department has cordially recognized the discretion and leniency with which the Board has in most cases exercised its compulsory powers, and, now that education has been made compulsory every-where, the London Board will receive a special reward for having set a good example. It is stated that there are numbers of idle children who now flock into the metropolis from the suburbs in order to escape school, and these children will now be forced to attend school in the districts to which they belong, and will relieve the Board from the imputation of allowing children to be in the streets with-out anything being done for them. Sir Charles Reed allows that many children attend the Board schools who ought not to receive the education they get there at the price at which they receive it. They pay only a trifle over twopence a week, whereas their parents can well afford to pay three or four times that sum for their education. This is unfair on the ratepayers, who ought to receive larger contributions from parents who are comparatively well-to-do. But Sir Charles Reed, while recognizing this unfairness, says that it is unavoidable, as different rates of payment cannot be enforced in the same school; and he is further able to say that there is no school in which the main work done is not so far rough work that the children of the very poor find a place there, and have every possible attention paid to them.

When we know how many children can go to school and how many actually go, the next thing to ask is what they are taught there. The ratepayers are quite willing to pay for elementary education, because the children of the poor could not be educated at all unless they were helped. But the ratepayers are reasonably unwilling to pay for a higher education for which those who wish their children to enjoy it, and can give them an opening in life which would make this education profitable, can as a rule very well pay themselves. It is also to be borne in mind that not only is it preposterous that ratepayers should give almost gratuitously a higher education to can afford to pay the proper price to secure it, but that it is extremely undesirable in the interests of the class to which such persons belong that secondary education should be got by a sort of side wind into the sphere of the operations of the School Board. What this class wants, operations of the School Board. What this class wants, and what it has not got, is a general system of secondary education conducted on sound principles and by competent teachers. It will never get such a system introduced if the few who see the importance of a good secondary education can procure it for their children through the bounty of the ratepayers. Sir Charles Reed says that the Board is alive to these obvious truths, and that the education given is mainly elementary. Only sixteen per cent. of the children receive instruction in specific subjects, the remainder being taught merely the three R.'s, and, in the case of those above the first standard, a few simple facts relating to geography and grammar. It is shown, however, that, whether the education given is too high or not, the number of children who at any time are receiving the highest education which the school provides will always be small in proportion to the total number receiving instruction. This total number includes children of all ages between three and thirteen, and the number of those who are little advanced must necessarily preponderate; in any system where children of such various ages are taught together there can scarcely be more than sixteen per cent. in the most forward stage. The question is, What are those in the most forward stage to be taught? They are there, and the School Board must, as Sir Charles Reed urges, teach them as well as it can teach the it can teach them. In order that monotony, with its accompanying weariness of mind, may be avoided, they must have a variety of instruction. The Alpine cows escape rinderpest because they feed on a great variety of herbs and grasses; and, by letting his little Alpine herds browse on a good many specific subjects, Sir Charles Reed saves

them from intellectual stagnation. The illustration is them from intellectual stagnation. The illustration is curious, and perhaps open to criticism. But the difficulty to which Sir Charles Reed points is a serious one. A child comes to school early, is well taught, is quick and attentive. He gets through the education that is strictly elementary long before he is thirteen. The logical thing to do would be to send him away from the school. He has got all that the ratepayers underteely to give him. But a preciselly it would sheek all took to give him. But practically it would check all interest in his work, both on his part and on that of his parents, if the result of his good behaviour and his exertions was that he was to be cut off from learning sooner than his schoolfellows. If he is not cut off, and is kept until he is thirteen, he must be taught something that is worth his knowing. He must be allowed to go forward, and the problem arises in what direction he is to be permitted to advance. It must be remembered, too, that great object of a national education is to give the English workman his proper place in the world, and to enable him to do his work with intelligence and method. This object would be defeated if the best and quickest lads were taught no more when they had just acquired the barest rudiments of knowledge. No one, therefore, who respects the poor and wishes England to remain great would say that poor boys who are above the average ought to be shut out altogether from secondary education. But what may be said is that criticism should be freely applied to the kind of secondary education given to the poor, and that secondary education should be looked on as a whole, and that we should not be content with one little patch of it being given over to-Board schools.

THE BISHOP OF PETERBOROUGH ON CHURCH CONGRESSES.

THE Bishop of Peterborough was thoroughly successful as the President of an institution which is now holding its twentieth annual meeting at Leicester, after having ssed with all the honours of war through such strongpassed with all the honours of war unlong. holds of Dissent as Stoke and Swansea. The BISHOP took upholds of Dissent as Stoke and Swansea. The BISHOP took up a bolder position in his opening address at the Leicester Church Congress than his predecessors have been wont to assume. He was not afraid of flouting the usual apology for such gatherings, that they tend to promote reciprocal courtesy and goodwill among the partisans of the various sections into which the Church of England is divided, as being in effect a covert aspersion upon that body for bad manners and deficient charity. In his eyes the Church Congress had imperceptibly and irregularly, but opportunely, grown up as ceptibly and irregularly, but opportunely, grown up as a substitute for some more authoritative and systematic a substitute for some more authoritative and systematic body of lay representation within the Church of England. It was far indeed from a condition of ideal perfection, either in the way in which it came together or in the conditions and restrictions under which it performed its duties; but, for all that, it was a useful and meritorious creation, considering the impossibility which has hitherto existed of framing any more formal machinery for focusing the public opinion of Churchmen.

Intrinsically there was no absolute novelty in this

Intrinsically there was no absolute novelty in this reasoning. Not to go further than ourselves, we have never been afraid of putting forward a similar plea. The importance of the argument consisted in the quarter from which it proceeded, and in its implied reference to actual Church politics. The Bishop of Petersborough recognized alike the existence and the nature of Convocation as a clerical body, and also the desirableness of supplementing this historical institution by some form of lay representation, now that Parliament has so completely slip the claims which it used plausibly to present of being a lay Synod of the Church of England. It is not so very long since hot-headed ecclesiastical poli-ticians were fond of urging as a desirable reform of Convocation that its constitution should be enlarged so as to comprehend lay members. The answer, however, to this proposal was the obvious suggestion that the change would be not reform, but destruction, inasmuch as Convocation in its constitutional and historical character was "Convoelected body of laymen, with whom it would from time to time take united counsel, while not grudging to the lay assembly the fullest powers of separate deliberation, seemed an obvious expedient for reconciling those conflicting requirements which an age of revived ecclesiastical activity had brought into novel prominence. The marrow criticism of timid withings who made merry over the notion of the laity being left out on the verandah, for a time discredited a project which must, we should think, now that it has been brought into fresh prominence under the powerful patronage of the Bishop of Peterborough, again assume its position as a legitimately debatable method of Church development. The Bishop left it doubtful whether the body which he contemplated should or should not contain clerical members, and he hinted at a Parliamentary sanction. This is a proposal on which we cannot look with pleasure, while the existence of a clerical delegation is inconsistent with the simultaneous existence of Convocation.

For our own part we do not advocate a precipitate acceptance of the scheme. Its advantages and its disadvantages cannot be balanced within the narrow limits of an article. But it has clearly come before thinking men in a form which imposes upon them the obligation of giving to it a respectful hearing. The reception which was given to it at a subsequent debate of the Congress showed how it had approved itself to the leading minds of that body. There is one limitation of the active authority of such an assembly as the one proposed by the Bishop of Peterborough, which ought at once to be fairly and plainly stated, as it will be either a recommendation of the notion or the reverse, according to the opinions and the aims of the critic who grasps the fact. If he is of a cautious temperament it will give him confidence, while the man of daring enterprise will probably fret under the restriction. Convocation, by the confession of its warmest advocates, has, in the present temper of public opinion, to rely mainly upon influence, while it must avoid any semblance of putting forward claims to direct legislative or coercive jurisdiction. It may be urged that Convocation, even if backed by some lay organization, will not be able to do much more; while the collective body of laymen must submit to meet and to debate under similar limitations. The weakness of either body will, in fact, be supplemented by an equally weak partner.

The obvious question will follow, whether it is worth while to create a machine which can, after all, do no more than formulate opinions, and will be impotent to make them effective. The sufficient answer, as it appears to us, to this question will be sought in the counter inquiry, whether, after all, a result which can be defined as the regulation of opinion would be so petty a success in an age when authority confessedly shows many signs of weakening, while opinion dares an unlimited license of universal interference. Besides, an assembly which would only exist for the creation of opinion might come into being without involving any risky resort to Parliamentary initiation. We need hardly insult our readers' understandings by giving them reasons for our aversion at the present moment to engaging Parliament in any such quest as one after a new Church Assembly.

For Convocation itself some such regulated process of attrition between the lay and the clerical types of mind would be very valuable at this crisis in its history, when it has so narrowly escaped a very insidious danger. We refer to the simulated deference to its wishes contained in the Burials Bill as originally brought into Parliament. The so-called Convocation clause, with its fragmentary and dislocated extracts from a very lengthy and complex Convocational scheme, presented about as accurate a quotation from its conclusions as the Puritan preacher did when he overwhelmed the headdresses of his female congregation by propounding "top[k]not" come down" as a text of the Gospel. As the Bishop of Peterbough himself said of these resolutions in the House of Lords, they "were passed by Convocation for "one purpose, and, as embodied in the clause, were introduced into the Bill for another and different purpose. "They were passed not that they should form part of a "Burials Bill, but to prevent a Burials Bill being carried." However, it suited the Government to take them up, in hopes that the Church of England would be beguiled into fancying itself a party to a fair compromise while suffering a thorough defeat. This device was happily seen through, and Convocation was spared a worse humiliation

and risk than that of being ignored—namely, being made use of as a cat's paw. The inference is plain, that if Convocation desires to retain its hold upon the respect of Churchmen, it had better, as things now are, have as little to do with Parliament as possible. But it must have to do with something besides itself, if it means to have a raison d'être. That something should most obviously be, in some form or other, a collective and tangible representation of lay opinion within the Church of England.

TRADE PROSPECTS.

THERE exists a good deal of uncertainty in financial and commercial circles in regard to the probable course of trade. During the summer it was very generally assumed that the character of the harvest would at once decide the question. Twelve months ago, it was argued, after the worst harvest perhaps of the present century, there was a totally unexpected and very marked revival. That is to say, the other conditions were so strongly in favour of good trade that even bad crops throughout Therefore, Europe were not sufficient to neutralize them. it was inferred, even an average harvest would give such an impetus to trade as had not been witnessed for a long time. The actual yield of the wheat harvest is still a matter of estimate; but it is known to be considerably in excess of last year; the quality, too, is very much superior, and most of the other crops are unquestionably satisfactory. Yet there are none of the signs which accompany a rapidly expanding trade. Iron, which first felt the revival last autumn, is now much cheaper than it was twelve months ago—is nearly as low in price, indeed, as it was on the eve of the Glasgow Bank failure. Coal, again, is at about the same price as this time last year. And generally it may be said that prices are at a moderate level, and are not advancing. The railway traffic returns, to which so much importance is properly attached as indica-ting the movement of goods through the country—that is, as showing the number, magnitude, and rapidity of com-mercial transactions—have of late not been increasing in the ratio that had been expected. More important still is the latest action of the Scotch ironmasters. During the Lanarkshire strike a large number of the furnaces were blown out, and on the termination of the strike it was decided to relight them; but last week this decision was reconsidered, and was rescinded, each master being left to act as he should think best. Lastly, the state of the labour market, which perhaps is the best test of all, is disappointing. The threatened strike at Accrington, on which we commented last week, has been given up, the weavers thus practically admitting the correctness of the employers' allegation that they cannot afford an advance of wages. And in Belfast notice has been given of a reduction of wages. Within certain limits we attach special significance to the state of the labour market. When trade is expanding rapidly, orders pouring in so fast that employers can hardly keep up with them, wages rise automatically. Employers, in their eagerness to take advantage of the smiles of fortune and to consolidate and extend their businesses, bid against one another for skilful workpeople. Even at an earlier stage of an improvement in trade, when masters are not yet extending their operations, but still are doing a steady, profitable business, they will grant a moderate advance rather than drive orders away and possibly jeopardize their future. When, therefore, they prefer a strike to a small advance, and still more when they give notice of reductions at the risk of provoking a strike, we may be sure that the business they are doing is not highly profitable.

Are we to conclude, then, that the revival of last autumn was a mere spurt, and that already the reaction has set in? We think not. The fact must not be lost sight of that the expectations formed during the past twelvemonth were extravagant and impossible of realization. The long depression had made people so weary of stagnation, and so hungry for large gains quickly won, that the instant a revival set in they rushed into gigantic speculations. Iron was in demand for the United States; consequently they bought iron. Many of the speculators had not the means of paying for what they had bought, and very often they sold to persons as impecunions as themselves; but all hoped that the Americans would ultimately take the metal at a greatly enhanced price, and thus that each would draw the stake for which he played.

From iron the speculation extended to other markets, and it ended, as speculations usually do, in a collapse. Those who won and those who lost have alike been hoping for a similar exciting game this autumn, and they are disappointed now that they find the probabilities strongly against their hopes. But in the interest of solid and lasting good trade it is most desirable that there should be no such wild speculative outburst. What is to be wished for is a gradual, steady, prolonged improvement. And that this is in progress we have evidence. It is too soon yet for the altered circumstances of the farmers to make themselves felt. Up to the present time they have been engaged in getting in their crops, in threshing, and other such operations. But they are better able than they were to pay their rents, to employ labour, and to enlarge their expenditure. We do not mean to imply, of course, that a single year has restored prosperity to British agriculture; nor we do forget the lowness of prices. But, compared with twelve months ago, the three classes interested in the land are well off, and this cannot fail to have an increasing influence as months pass on. The country towns will share in the returning prosperity of their rural neighbours, and the manufacturers in turn will be benefited by what benefits the shopkeepers. The cheapness of bread will give a fresh stimulus to improvement. Already, before the harvest is well secured throughout the United Kingdom, the Gazette average price of wheat is under 2t. a quarter, and it is almost certain that it will fall still lower. Thus the working classes, with more abundant employment than they have had for some years back, will get their bread exceptionally cheap, and consequently will have a larger surplus to spend on other things. This surplus, though small in each individual case, becomes a very large sum when multiplied every week by many millions, and therefore will impart a great stimulus to trade.

Already there is evidence of increased purchasing power on the part of the working classes. The Customs revenue, which had so long been falling off, has of late begun to recover. For the six weeks ending September 18 there is an increase under this head, compared with the corresponding weeks of last year, of 124,000l. It is true, indeed, that the present week's return shows a decrease, but that probably is only a casual fluctuation. The increase under Excise proves nothing, as there has been an increase of taxation, and the item of stamps is too heterogeneous to allow us to draw an inference from its augmentation. But the recovery in Customs duties is significant, as it is accompanied by a revival in the tea trade, which a few months ago was in desperate straits. Again, though the Stock Exchange pronounces the railway traffic returns to be disappointing, they show, in fact, a very large increase over last year. From July 1 to September 18 only two out of sixteen principal railways of the United Kingdom show a loss of traffic. These are the Great Northern and the North British; and the latter case is sufficiently explained by the destruction of the Tay Bridge. The Lancashire and Yorkshire has gained 51 per cent.; the Great Western, 66 per cent.; the North-Western, 101 per cent.; and the North-Eastern, 170 per cent. The whole sixteen Companies have gained over half a million. Granting that the corresponding period of last year was very bad, that the increase proceeds with diminishing rather than increasing rapidity, and that in some cases rates have been raised, the fact still remains that a very substantial growth of traffic is exhibited.

Even the iron, cotton, and linen trades—to which we have referred as sustaining the view of those who are doubtful as to the immediate future—are incomparably better off than they were a year ago. The cotton trade was then in a state of collapse; it has since experienced an enormous demand from the East, and at the worst can only not afford higher wages. In the late dispute the employers did not say that they are now carrying on their business at a loss. On the contrary, they held out hopes of an advance by and by. From Belfast the latest news is decidedly more cheerful, and speaks of a largely increased demand; while in Scotland, though a general relighting of furnaces is not ordered, the number of furnaces in blast had risen in the week ending September 18, from 55 to 70, or 27 per cent. In all these facts we have satisfactory evidence that the improvement in trade continues—not so rapidly, indeed, as speculators hoped for, but steadily and gradually, and in the way that holds out the best promise of endurance. The low range of prices proves that speculation is not at work, that the improvement is the result

of natural causes, and that the growing demand is not likely to be checked by exorbitant terms. We have already assigned reasons for the expectation that the home consumption will grow during the winter; and if we were to extend our review to foreign countries, we should discover other reasons to support the conclusion at which we have arrived. We will mention but two—the extraordinary and apparently abiding prosperity of the United States, and the assurance which the abundant fall of rain gives us that the Indian crops will again be good this year. In the meantime, however, it is the hand-to-mouth kind of business that grows, and that this is fairly profitable is proved by the cheerfulness that prevails everywhere. It is possible that speculative business, too, may revive when the holiday season is over, for it has been later than usual this year, because of the fine weather and the lateness of the Parliamentary Session. But that will greatly depend on politics.

THE IRISH ANARCHY.

ON Wednesday night Mr. Childers and Mr. Forster, it is said, crossed from Dublin together on the way to meet their colleagues at the Cabinet Council. Any one emulous of the fame of Landor could hardly do better than attempt an imaginary conversation between the two Ministers. Personally that conversation might have a beginning of a rather aigre-doux character. For it cannot have been pleasant to Mr. Forster to read how the other day his colleague was good enough to tell the people of Donegal—or was it Galway?—that there were three members of the present Cabinet who had the good of Ireland at heart, and to find that he, the Chief Secretary, was not one of them. Let us, however—or rather let the writer of the imaginary conversation—do these two Ministers the justice to suppose that something else besides personal matters may have occupied their thoughts. Mr. Childers has been making what the organs of the anti-English party themselves call a sort of triumphal progress through the North and West of Ireland. He has been taken to all the show places, has had all the usual pretty compliments paid him, and has expressed himself as delighted with everything. Meanwhile Mr. Forster has been looking, if not with his bodily eyes, on a very different aspect of Irish affairs; he has had—daily reports before him of murders, outrages, and offences against property. He has had to read how, without the slightest interference from those officers of the law whose action he is supposed to direct, the produce of whole farms has been carried off in broad daylight. He has had to read long lists of those outrages on helpless cattle which not so very long ago aroused an honest indignation in him. He has read of threats and violence of all sorts to persons engaged in lawful discharge of lawful business; and, to crown the whole, he has read of a peer of the realm of Ireland being murdered in cold blood on the Queen's highway. Meanwhile, of less directly painful matter he has had before him reams of reports of speeches at Land League meeti

tween two statesmen with such experiences would be not a little instructive, and it ought to have borne some fruit at the Council—that is to say, if Mr. Gladstone could be induced to divert his attention from his beloved friends who mutilate and murder in the East to those who mutilate and murder in the West.

It has very much grieved some sedate English critics that the murder of Lord Mountmorres should have brought about a panic in Ireland, and should be in danger of bringing about something like a panic in England. Nothing can be nobler than the tone in which persons who are themselves in perfect safety implore others who are also in perfect safety not to be panicstricken, and not to be in the least affected by the panic of those at whose foreheads the pistol of the murderer is set. To take an article of one of the Radical organs in England, and to compare it with the actual narrative of the facts of Lord Mountmorres's fate, has a grimness of comedy about it which cannot fail of relish to the discerning palate. The murder itself; the neighbour, his wife, and his daughter refusing shelter to the dying man, either out of brutish superstition, or, much more probably, from sheer fear of the vengeance of the murderers; the bands of the land meeting next day playing dead marches, amid roars of laughter, as they pass the place where their victim lies; the baseless calumnies of lying mob-orators trying to take away the dead man's reputation as their accomplices had taken away his life; the idle perquisitions of the police; the expectation by neighbours of a similar fate—these things make up the picture of the anarchy and terror which are flourishing within half a day's journey of London under the nominal government of an English Minister. The helplessness of the law, if it needed further demonstration, can be demonstrated easily by what has occurred in connexion with the New Ross

murder—that murder which, according to Mr. Parnell, would have been quite unnecessary but for the culpable omission of the farmers in the neighbourhood to organize." Here pressure has been put on the Government to give up witnesses whose evidence may be, and probably is, material to a conviction, to be tampered with by their friends, and the pressure has in part succeeded. The rewards offered for other evidence are denounced openly by the agitators, and the shouts of "Give him lead!" which have before and since had such fatal translation into acts, are passed over by them without notice or expostulation. Meanwhile, on this side of the water, advisers of the public gravely request that Englishmen will not on any account go into a panic, and that they will pay no attention whatever of an extraordinary kind to the murder of Lord Mountmorres. Indeed we may expect to hear at any moment that, if anybody pay such attention, he is only a snob who "loves a lord."

What is more particularly interesting is to contrast with all this the shouts of execration which have arisen from these same persons at the words of the bellicose Orange parson who took it into his head the other day to suggest that there were games at which two could play. We are certainly not inclined to make ourselves Mr. Kane's apologists, and it is to be feared that the reverend gentleman has studied the Pentateuch a good deal more than the Gospels. But it is to be observed that all he advocated was in the way of self-defence and retaliation, not the beginning of hostilities. It will be very hard for any of those who execrate Mr. Kane and deprecate panic in reference to Lord Mountmorres's murderers to make out that, even in a civilized country, the apathy of a Government in enforcing the law may not at some point or other justify the resumption by the individual of the right to protect himself and to strike at his enemies. It is for the Government to show that this lamentable condition of things can in no case arrive in Ireland, that they are aware of the dangers of the case, and willing and able to meet them. The complete impunity with which the operations of the Land League (which it is idle to endeavour to separate from the murders now committed monthly) continue to be carried on must necessarily have encouraged evildoers. There seems to have been a singular misapprehension, if it be no worse, of the facts of the case on the part of some English critics. Strong indifference to verbal provocation is one thing, weak indifference is another. A Government can afford to laugh at Mr. Parnell and his rabble so long, and so long only, as it keeps constantly in evidence force which is ready at a moment's notice to scatter the said rabble into its constituent elements of individual rascality. When it does not do this the rabble becomes something like a military demonstration, and impresses friends and foes accordingly. Moreover, every one in his senses and with the slightest knowledge of Irish history knows that

its strength and determination to bear them harmless.

In the face of such a ghastly event as that at Clonbur, one has little heart to take note of the merely ludicrous aspect of the agitation. Gifted poetesses who describe with fervid eloquence how the angels look down with approval on poor men holding their own, how the saints bless their cattle, and make their crops yield a thousandfold, while they entirely forget to tell us what attitude the saints and angels assume towards the same poor men when they cut off the tails of their landlord's cattle or steal the crop that is legally his, might give plenty of scope for comment at another time. Mr. Redpath's eccentricities are not easily exhaustible; but, when one remembers that the orator amused himself by denouncing one murdered landlord close to the very spot where another had been murdered the night before, he too ceases to be a subject for raillery. The well-known flowers of Irish newspaper rhetoric have not failed to be lavished on the demand that districts which have forfeited the right to be treated as the abodes of civilized freemen should be subjected to some more appropriate regimen. The suggestion, which seems very likely to be a fact, that the weapons with which Lord Mountmorres was alaughtered may have been purchased with the money which amiable Englishmen subscribed last winter for keeping the interesting people of Ireland alive, crowns the irony of the whole business appropriately enough. But the business itself has gone beyond a joke. Parliament is not sitting; the chief attention of Ministers seems to be devoted to plans for bringing Europe by the ears; the Congregational Associations and the Unions of Liberal Young Christian Men are still occupied in contemplating ecstatically the mercies of the late general election; and certain newspapers, which used to discover that Lord Beaconsfield's policy was, with unavoidable drawbacks, the best of all possible policies, have aucceeded in getting themselves into the same mental attitude with regard to t

it need hardly be said, a struggle will have been begun of which no man can see the end. It is certain that in every imperfectly civilized country the mass of the people incline to that side which shows most overt strength, and it is equally certain that a strong spirit of factiousness still exists in Ireland—of factiousness, if the word may be used, on the right side as well as on the wrong. An open war of secret Societies (the contradiction is allowable enough) would probably confirm Mr. Kane's anticipations to the letter, and would exhibit to Europe a spectacle the scandal of which would perhaps be hardly greater in kind, but certainly greater in degree, than the scandal which has just sent a cool-headed French observer away from the shores of the isle which used to be the special pet and protégé of France, convinced that Irish prospects are pretty nearly hopeless. Only the most energetic action can cure the evil, and it seems very improbable that any energetic action will be taken by the present Ministry, unless it be action altogether the wrong way. We began this article by suggesting an imaginary conversation of the dead. The ghosts of Sergeant Brett and of Lord Mountmorres might have something to say to one another, and it would be interesting to hear the opinion of both as to the present Prime Minister of England.

OAKHAM AND UPPINGHAM.

THE existence of Rutland in the very heart of England, as an independent county unknown to Domesday, is pronounced by Mr. Freeman to be "an insoluble problem." We certainly can discover no historic trace of a tribe of Rotlandas making this circumscribed district their home, as the Sumoraetas and Doraetas did the shires which perpetuate their names in the Southwest. The little county, which oddly enough appears as an appendage to Nottinghamshire, from which it is separated by a wide stretch of Leicestershire, a century before it emerges as a distinct shire, may possibly have taken its name from the colour of its ferruginous soil—"Rutland" quasi "red-land." The proverbial saying, "Rutland raddleman," preserved by Fuller, connecting the county with the "raddle," or "ruddle," used for marking sheep, may here be quoted; and, though the matter is far from certain, this is perhaps the most probable derivation of the name. But, though we have little ground for claiming a similar origin for the counties of Somerset and of Rutland, they present some curious and not unsuggestive points of correspondence. Rutland alone of Mercian shires—Shropshire, with its shiretown of "Scrobbesbyrig," now softened into Shrewsbury, is of course no real exception—has a distinct name of its own, like Somerset, entirely unconnected with its capital. If it is a modern blunder, the fruit of that unreasoning craving for uniformity which is gradually rubbing out all old historic landmarks, to speak of Somersetshire, Rutlandshire is as much a misnomer, as wnknown on the spot, as Cumberlandshire or Westmorelandshire is anywhere. Girt in on all sides by large counties taking their names from the chief towns round which they were grouped as a convenient centre—Leicestershire, Northamptonshire, Lincolnshire, and the rest—Rutland in its minuteness is above them all in the perfect independence of its being. Oakham is the chief town of Rutland; but in no sense is the county of Rutland an appendage to

We have spoken of Oakham as the chief town of Rutland; but in this also there is a point of correspondence between Rutland and Somerset, that it contains more than one town of so nearly the same size and importance that it is not easy to say to which the precedence rightly belongs. But while the dignity of shiretown has been parceiled out among several towns in Somerset—the assizes being held alternately at Wells and Taunton, and Ilchester till recently containing the county gaol, and, going a little further back, being the one place for the election of the knights of the shire—Oakham has always been the assize town and the centre of county business. The one privilege reserved to Uppingham appears in an ordinance of Henry VII. that the standard for weights and measures should be kept in it. At the present day it is not easy to say which is the less important place. Neither Oakham, as befits the capital of the smallest county in England, with the exception of the church and Castle Hall, all is diminutive. The houses that line the long street which, with a little market square, makes the town are generally small and low. Few aspire to three stories. Some are mere thatched cottages. There are a few examples of the stone-mullioned window and the gabled oriel characteristic of the district, but the aspect of Oakham is old-fashioned rather than old—neat and decent, but hardly picturesque. The little grass-grown market-place is more attractive. The octagonal "Butter Cross," a wooden structure covered with a lofty pyramidal roof raised on sturdy posts and sheltering the once formidable town stocks, with the long, low, grey-roofed, timber-framed shambles as a background, offers a charming subject for the sketch-book. But the chief objects of interest in Oakham, which of themselves will reward a journey thither, are the very noble Church, the Castle Hall, and Flores House, the last two ranking among the most important remains of Domestic architecture in England. The Flores or Flowers were the leading family at Oak-

ham for several centuries, their name constantly appearing in the records of the town and its charitable foundations, and to one of them the erection of the beautiful fourteenth-century spire of the church is attributed. The mansion known as "Flores House," records of the town and its charitable foundations, and to one of them the erection of the beautiful fourteenth-century spire of the church is attributed. The mansion known as "Flores House," the picturesque ivy-mantled front of which is one of the chief ornaments of the main street, preserves, amid much alteration, several Early English features. The house, which is of some considerable size, consisted of a hall in the centre flanked by gabled wings projecting backwards. This considerable mansion guards the southern entrance of the town, which was never walled, the street here being narrowed to the width of one vehicle. Here, as elsewhere, it is observable how in mediæval towns the wider spaces and thoroughfares of the interior were only approachable by entries of very contracted dimensions, admitting of easy defence against those whom it was undesirable to admit any further. The principal entrance of the house is a very good example of a shafted doorway of the thirteenth century, one of the dripstone terminations being a crowned head with the short beard and hair of Henry III. Within, on the end wall of the hall, between the screen and the entrance to the kitchen, is a curious early water-drain, resembling a piscina, for washing the hands before and after dinner: an arrangement of which later examples are found at South Wingfield in Derbyshire, Dacre Castle, and the Deanery, Wells. The orifice of the drain is protected by a human head, and the shelf is carved with a rose and large single dog's-tooth ornaments; above is a staple for the towel.

From Flores House it is but a stone's-throw to the Castle, the

is a staple for the towel.

From Flores House it is but a stone's-throw to the Castle, the hall of which may be safely pronounced, both from its early date (the latter part of the twelfth century) and from the beauty of the design and the excellence of its ornamental features, as well as from its happily unaltered state, to be without a rival as an example of our domestic architecture. Of the defensive works of the Castle our domestic architecture. Or the defensive works of the Castle little remains. Earthworks of Anglo-Saxon or perhaps earlier date defended by a fosse support some ruined ivied walls, destitute of architectural character, and enclose an irregular area. This has been divided into an outer and inner court separated by a has been divided into an outer and inner court separated by a ditch, and perhaps a stockade. At present there is no trace of a wall. The south-east corner rises into a low mound as if for a keep-tower, the external face gay with brilliant flower-beds. But the whole has been so dismantled that it is almost impossible to make out the original plan. The hall stands detached towards the south of the area. Like the Royal hall at Winchester and the Episcopal hall at Lincoln, and the still earlier example of Westminster Hall as originally built by Rufus, the hall of Oakham Episcopal nail at Lincoin, and the still earlier example of West-minster Hall as originally built by Rufus, the hall of Oakham Castle is divided into a centre and side aisles by two rows of pillars and arches. The pillars are cylindrical, with highly en-riched Corinthianesque capitals, which at once recall the con-temporary capitals at Canterbury and Christchurch, Oxford, though temporary capitals at Canterbury and Christchuren, Uxiord, though with a decidedly foreign feeling in the foliage, which renders them more akin to those at Soissons and Blois. The arches are semicircular, and are richly moulded. The plan of the windows, which are happily unaltered throughout, shows externally a pair of lancets, divided by a shafted mullion, with double bands of toothed ornament running up the jambs. The window openings are square headed, the heads of the lancets being left solid and usually richly carred with foliage. Within the rear-arch is round-headed with carved with foliage. Within, the rear-arch is round-headed with bold tooth adornment in the hollow chamfer. There is no clerestory. The quaint beasts—cat-a-mountains, bulls, lions—from story. The quaint beasts—cat-a-mountains, bulls, lions—from which the terminal arches spring as corbels, themselves supported on regal and other heads, the musicians perched on the abacuses of which the terminal arches spring as corbels, themselves supported on regal and other heads, the musicians perched on the abacuses of the capitals, the centaur and mounted lion which stare down from the summits of the gables, and other bits of carving about the building, are full of original power which is more attractive than many a more finished work. The great charm of the building, however, is its unaltered condition. Since George Villiers, Duke of Buckingham, put up the high-pitched roof, it has remained substantially untouched by the hand of modernizer, or, more dangerous still, restorer. With the exception of the very unobtrusive fittings introduced to adapt it to its purpose as Assize Courts—the bench, the bar, the witness-box, the dock, and the rest—the hall remains substantially the same as when first erected by Walkelin de Ferrars just at the time that Henry II. was first sending out his justices in eyre, and mapping out England into judicial circuits roughly corresponding with those of the present day. Next to the singular beauty of the architecture, the horse-shoes which crowd the walls—the tribute of many regal as well as noble visitors, from Queen Elizabeth down to her present Majesty when Princess Victoria, and the Princess of Teck—attract the visitor's attention. There are horse-shoes of every size from the huge Brobdingnagian gilt rings six feet across which hang over the judge's seat, to the little shoes of as many inches over the side doors, and of various materials, from that of George IV., when Prince Regent, of polished brass, to the humble matter-of-fact rusty iron shoes actually taken from a horse's foot. This curious "custom of the manor" which authorizes the claim from every peer of Parliament the first time he passes through the town of a horse-shoe to be nailed to the castle gate, though entirely without documentary authority, is of high antiquity; but the date of its institution and its original meaning are completely lost. We can hardly doubt, however, that there is some connexion

some connection between this total of onsesshoes and the family name of Ferrers, de Ferrarias, who bear a "canting coat," as the heralds say, "semée of horse-shoes."

To the west of the castle stands the church. Both in outline and in detail this is a singularly beautiful building, and the restoration, which was conducted by Sir G. G. Scott in 1858, while productive of much good in clearing away pews and galleries and allowing the

fine proportions of the interior to be fully seen, appears to have done no more harm than is inseparable from the work of the restorer. The western tower, a spire of Late Decorated date, is a very stately composition, assigned, as we have said, to one of the Flores as founder. The relative proportions of the successive stages are excellent; it is not overdone with ornament; the tall coupled belfry windows give immense dignity to the tower, while the junction of the spire-generally an awkward thing to manage satisfactorily—is admirably masked by the corner turrets of unusual size which take the place of pinnacles. The general effect of the exterior is of a building of the Perpendicular date; but, as so often happens, on entering we the Perpendicular date; but, as so often happens, on entering we find that later walls and windows mask an earlier fabric. The nave arcade is Early Decorated circa 1320, the capitals being much enriched by carvings of angels, animals, foliage, &c. The chancel is also a Decorated work to which very wide chantry aisless have been added of late Perpendicular metal-line guite to the section. chancel is also a Decorated work to which very wide chantry aisles have been added of late Perpendicular reaching quite to the east end. There are quasi-transepts formed by doubling the two eastern bays of the aisles, under a flattish gable. This arrangement as seen without is not pleasing. The general effect of the interior is one of singular stateliness and spaciousness. The architecture and fittings, including those put up in the late restoration, are all of unusual excellence, and the building is evidently well cared for and used. We must not omit to mention the grand old tubshaped Norman font, elevated on a high panelled base of later date.

At the north-east corner of the churchyard a long high-pitched gabled building of Charles I.'s time shelters the celebrated Grammar School founded, together with the sister establishment at Uppingham, in the reign of Elizabeth, c. 1584, by Archdeacon Robert Johnson, gabled building of Charles I.'s time shelters the celebrated Grammar School founded, together with the sister establishment at Uppingham, in the reign of Elizabeth, c. 1584, by Archdeacon Robert Johnson, Rector of North Luffenham, Prebendary of Windsor and Rochester, and Archdeacon of Leicester. The founder of these two educational institutions, by which the names of the little towns of Oakham and Uppingham have become known far beyond the limits of the county and its vicinity, was the son of Maurice Johnson of Stamford, M.P. for that borough. He served as chaplain to the Lord Keeper Nicholas Bacon, and was vicar of Luffenham for half a century, "preaching painfully and keeping good hospitality," and died there, at the advanced age of eighty-five, in 1625, in which year the statutes of his two schools were first promulgated. His grandson Isaac Johnson, with his wife, Lady Arabella Fiennes, left England in 1630 with the "Pilgrim Fathers," and died at Boston the same year, appointing John Hampden his executor. The Lady Arabella did not survive many months. The code provides for a master and an usher—now swelled to a staff of nine-and-twenty masters and teachers of various subjects—of whom the former was to be "painful in the education of children, of good learning and religion, such as can make Greek and Latin verse"; while the usher was to be "a godly, learned, and discreet man, that can make him Latin, both in proce and verse." The poor boys had no indulgent allowance of holidays. The now time-honoured "Midsummer holidays" had not come into being, while the Christmas holidays were limited to a month, from "December the tenth to the Monday after Twelfth Day"; and the only other relaxations from continuous study recognized by the statutes were ten days at Easter and Whitsuntide. After and the only other relaxations from continuous study recognized by the statutes were ten days at Faster and Whitman by the statutes were ten days at Easter and Whitsuntide. After a useful existence of two centuries and a half, with varying fortunes, but on the whole doing good educational work, as proved by a long list of distinguished alumni, including two living members of the Episcopal Bench, Archdeacon Johnson's foundations have come under the Charity Commissioners, who have decided that, Rutland being too small a county to be allowed to retain two first-grade schools, the higher dignity should be reserved for Uppingham, Oakham being bidden to "take a lower room." The decision was probably not an unwise one. Experience had proved that the prosperity of the two schools was never contemporaneous; that if Oakham was up, Uppingham was down. There was certainly room for a good second-grade school. The change has been more nominal than real; and after an interval during which the institution was recovering itself from the shock, Oakham Grammar School, under an able and energetic head-master, is once more prosperous. by the statutes were ten days at Easter and Whitsuntide. ble and energetic head-master, is once more prosperous.

Oakham lies relatively low, among the green pastures of fertile valley of Catmose, whose praises are sung by Drayton:stures of the

Bring forth that British vale, and be it ne'er so rare But Catmus with that vale for richness may compar

Bring forth that British vale, and be it never so rare
But Catmus with that vale for richness may compare;
looked down upon to the east by the umbrageous woods and
vast white stone mansion of Burley-on-the-Hill, rich in memories
of James I. and "Baby Charles" and "Steenie," of Ben Jonson's
masque of the "Gipsies" acted, and Bishop Andrewes's learned discourses preached before the Court here—taken by storm by Cromwell
himself in July, 1643, and occupied by a Parliamentary garrison, by
which it was afterwards deserted and burnt, but rebuilt after its
purchase by Daniel Finch, Earl of Nottingham, in a style more
ponderous than beautiful. Uppingham, the other recipient of Archdeacon Johnson's bounty, on the contrary, stands high; its long
sinuous street (Leland, when he visited it three centuries and a half
ago, wrote, "It is but one meane streete") stretching along the very
edge of one of the long, low steep hills which are the characteristics
of this part of Rutland, making it like a magnified ploughed field all
"ridge and furrow." Uppingham has no such examples of mediæval
domestic architecture to show as those which are the glory of
Oakham; but it has some good stone-fronted houses, both in the
earlier mullioned and gabled style and in that of the first Georges,
with tall sash windows, projecting cornices, and well-proportioned
dormers. These are now thrown into insignificance by the tall

new hotel, and the various masters' boarding-houses, with their long ranges of dormitories and studies, some of which, but chiefly those outside the town, are really palatial structures. Every here and there a gap in the houses affords a peep of tempting shady gardens and old-fashioned mansions, retiring in dignified state from the noise and turmoil of the public street. In days of unscientific etymology Uppingham was supposed to have taken its name from its elevated position. Of course it really denotes, as Kemble pointed out long since, the "mark" or home of the Upingas. The place has given birth to a proverb, "As round asan Uppingham trencher"; but, beyond its having been the first incumbency of Jeremy Taylor, and having sheltered Charles I. on his flight from Oxford to Southwell, with Ashburnham and Hudson, on the night of Saturday, May 2nd. Ashburnham and Hudson, on the night of Saturday, May 2nd, 1646, its annals are bare of historical incidents. The church, which stands conspicuously on the very brow of the steep descent, at one end of the market-place, though much inferior to Oakham, is far from deserving Leland's contemptuous description as "a very meane churche." It is a large building of Decorated date, with a well-proportioned western tower and spire, which, from its position on the summit of the ridge, is a conspicuous object from all the country round. The interior was restored too son and is far from deserving Leland's contemptuous description as "a very meane churche." It is a large building of Decorated date, with a well-proportioned western tower and spire, which, from its position on the summit of the ridge, is a conspicuous object from all the country round. The interior was restored too soon, and preserves little that is ancient except the very pleasing nave arcades, which on the south side retain some of their decorative painting; the freedom and grace of the scrollwork, and the irregular spacing of the red stars which powder the soffetes, are a marked contrast to the lifeless exactness of modern stencilling. The chancel is entirely modern, with slender serpentine columns and natural leafage on the capitals; well intentioned and costly, but certainly un-English and very far from pleasing. The chief object of interest in the church is the old Jacobean pulpit, from which Jeremy Taylor preached during the four years that he resided as rector of Uppingham. Restorers have done all they can to spoil this invaluable relic, by robbing it of its sounding-board, lowering it and putting it on a leg of polished serpentine quite out of keeping with its arabesque oak wainscot sides; but the body of the pulpit is as it was in Taylor's days, and is shown to the curious visitor by the sexton as "Gen'ral Taylor's pulpit; or Genl'man Taylor's, I don't mind which; anyhow, he lived a long while ago." The parish registers exhibit delightful examples of Taylor's neat calligraphy, in marked contrast with the ungainly ill-spelt scrawl which deforms the pages after he had left Uppingham by the King's command in 1642 to join him as his chaplain at Oxford. Taylor became rector of Uppingham, March 23, 1638, on the presentation of Juxon, then Bishop of London. The first entry is his signature at the bottom of the page for that same year, "Jeremy Taylor, Rector Ecclesie." The next year we have the entry of his marriage, "1639 Mr. Jeremiah Taylor ('Rector' interlined) and Phœbe Landisdale, married May 27." We know nothi of her death are unknown. Taylor's modest parsonage to the west of the church, though largely added to to suit the requirements of modern rectors, remains substantially unaltered. It has a stone front, with projecting two-storied oriels capped with gables, after the type of the district, of which examples are so abundant at Stamford.

The most marked feature in Uppingham, however, is the group of school buildings erected from the designs of Mr. Street to the south of the main thoroughfare. These, which form two sides of a proposed quadrangle, to be built as the property falls into the Governors' hands, comprise a chapel and a school-room, standing on an open cloister, and class-rooms below, we were going to say tright angles to one another. But oddly enough the two blocks on an open cloister, and class-rooms below, we were going to say at right angles to one another. But oddly enough the two blocks of buildings do not run square, and though the divergence is masked by a cylindrical bell-turret in the corner—not a very happy effort of Mr. Street's genius, rather too much resembling a Mordan's pencil-case, and too small to allow the fine bells to be rung—the effect is displeasing, and will be more so when the other sides of the court are built. The whole group is in the form of earlier Gothic, chiefly affected by Mr. Street, but with all its excellences of proportion and detail there is an unsympathetic hardness about the design which fails to charm. The interior of the chapel, with window tracery reminding one of Merton Chapel, is very striking from its height, and the distance of the window-sills from the floor. Mr. Street knows the value of blank walls. The original school-room, of the same humble type as that of Oakham, still stands at the south-east corner of the churchyard, but is reduced to a carpenter's shop—carpentry and joiner's work having been judiciously added by Mr. Thring, the present Head-Master, to his school curriculum. At the opposite end of the churchyard, to the west, are the other buildings, forming "School-house

Quad," partly old, partly new. The former, a low ivy-vested gabled group, comprises master's house, dining hall, and dormitory over, tossed together with little order, but with the happiest result as regards picturesque effect. Two sides of the school court are surrounded with a low range of tiny studies, measuring about 6 ft. by 4; each with its table and chair, book-shelves, and ink-stand, recalling the "carols" of a monastic cloister, warmed with hot-water pipes, the walls hung with pictures and decorated with brackets and statuettes, or austere and bare, according to the means and taste of its juvenile occupant. By this wholesome arrangement, which is carried out in all the separate boarding-houses, each boy has conferred on him what Aristotle calls the "unspeakable" delight of the "sense of private property." Few things give a higher idea of the healthy spirit pervading the school, and of the educational work done in it, than a visit to these studies. Many a man will think with a shudder of his own schoolboy days—three hundred boys in one big schoolroom, without book-shelves, desks, or anything to write on save on one's knees, a scene of noise, idleness, and brutality. Each boy has his separate cubicle, and the school classes never exceeding thirty boys on an average, and the boarding-bouses being limited to the same number every boy feels that he classes never exceeding thirty boys on an average, and the boarding-houses being limited to the same number, every boy feels that he is known and cared for individually. Mr. Thring's eulogium may be summed up in the simple fact that the seven-and-twenty years of his head-mastership have resulted in the numbers of the school being raised from twenty-five boys—a certain number having followed the former Head-Master to Durham—to an average of three hundred and twenty, and that Uppingham may now take rank among the leading public schools of the country. The school lists of Uppingham are not barren in distinguished names. To omit living scholars at both Universities, its rolls show the names of Ferne, Bishop of Chester; Stanhope, Dean of Canterbury; and Manners Sutton, Archbishop of Canterbury.

Any account of Uppingham School, however slight, would be incomplete without reference to that remarkable enoch in the

incomplete without reference to that remarkable epoch in the school annals known as the "Exodus to Borth," when the whole three hundred boys, driven out of their old quarters in January 1876 by typhoid fever—the fruit here as elsewhere of in-adequate drainage—found refuge on the shores of Cardigan Bav. 1876 by typhoid fever—the fruit here as elsewhere of inadequate drainage—found refuge on the shores of Cardigan Bay,
where for twelve months, under strangely new surroundings,
partly in the huge empty hotel, partly in extemporized wooden
sheds, partly in cottages of the village of Borth, the school
work was carried on almost as efficiently as in Rutland. Never
was a terrible evil, threatening the very existence of the school,
met with greater tact and courage, and not only averted, but
transformed almost into a good by practical wisdom and unwavering faith. The whole story has been so charmingly told
by Mr. Skrine, in his Uppingham by the Sea, that we cannot
do better than close our article by recommending our readers to by Mr. Skrine, in his *Uppingham by the Sea*, that we cannot do better than close our article by recommending our readers to get a sight of his delightful little volume. When once begun they

will find it difficult to lay it down.

BROAD CHURCH ETHICS.

DURING the last week or two some of the most prominent members of what calls itself the Liberal party in the Church of England have been taking to themselves a considerable space in the daily newspapers. Some ten days ago the matter began by the publication, or rather the republication from a provincial journal, of a scheme of home reunion from the pen of the Dean of Westminster. Then Mr. Stanford Brooke appropried his research Westminster. Then Mr. Stopford Brooke announced his reasons for seceding from the Church, and Mr. Brooke's reasons have brought down remonstrances upon his head from Mr. Capes and Mr. Haweis. With Mr. Stopford Brooke we have nothing to do Mr. Haweis. With Mr. Stopford Brooke we have nothing to do at present. His conduct, whatever may be thought of it from other points of view, at least presents no hold to adverse criticism from the ethical side. He has not, strictly speaking, held any preferment in the Church, and therefore is not called upon to resign any, and he has honestly enough announced his secession. It may seem odd that in the Church, and therefore is not called upon to resign any, and he has honestly enough announced his secession. It may seem odd that he should prefer Brookism—for that is the sect to which, as we gather, he has now definitely joined himself—to the Church of Augustine and Anselm, of Wilson and Butler; but that is a matter for himself only. The other persons we have mentioned are not in a similar position, and the manifestoes which they have published are much more curious documents. The Dean of Westminster's is perhaps the least remarkable, because he tells nobody anything that he did not know before. But, considering its priority in point of time and the rank of the writer, it probably deserves to be dealt with first. Dean Stanley's ideas and practical discharge of his duty as guardian of the Abbey of Westminster are already sufficiently historical. It seems to the Dean that the best thing he can do is to open that building to all the sects which are most hostile to the Church to which it belongs, and which make no secret of their hostility. To do the sects justice, they have been very little moved by the advantages accruing to them from the legal accident that Dean Stanley is his own Ordinary. The Dean with some naïveté confesses this; but still he suggests that the experiment should be tried elsewhere. Putting decency and some other things for the moment out of the question, there is something very engaging in the simplicity of the means which the Dean wishes to employ. A good-sized minster, with a Church service going on in the choir (if that does not savour too much of ascendency), a Roman Catholic divine officiating in the Lady Chapel, a Ranter in the nave, a Baptist in the south transept, and possibly a Quakers' meeting in the Chapter-house—given these simple conditions, the dissensions of English Christendom will, thinks the Dean, shortly be healed. If anything more remains to be done, he proceeds to point out how to do it. Even at present, thinks Dr. Stanley, there are no subscriptions or declarations, or anything else of the kind, which need keep anybody out of the Church. A dozen years ago all these things were commuted into a "simple assent to the doctrine of the Church of England as contained in the Book of Common Prayer and the Articles." The Dean is very particular about "doctrine," in the singular. For it seems that you may assent to the "doctrine" of the formularies without assenting to their "doctrines." This invaluable singular allows anybody to make a mental reservation of any particular doctrine he does not like as not being included in the general doctrine. It is clear,

ing to their "doctrines." This invaluable singular allows anybody to make a mental reservation of any particular doctrine he does not like as not being included in the general doctrine. It is clear, therefore, that anybody who will not come into the Church is an idle hair-splitter. The "slight and colourless adhesion" might indeed be done away with, and it would be a very good thing to do away with it, but it really does not matter. Still Dr. Stanley thinks that it would be a capital thing if "the narrower system" were left to "Nonconforming Churches": that is to say, he proposes, with a legerdemain surpassing Mr. Maskelyne's, to make conformity into nonconformity. So far the Dean; and it is to be observed that he is addressing himself to those who are outside the Church and advising them to come in. His argument of course cuts both ways, and in the cutting exposes some very singular conformation of moral fibre in himself and those who sympathize with him. But the exposure is indirect only.

It is otherwise with the other letters to which we have referred. Mr. Haweis is extremely angry with Mr. Stopford Brooke, whose conduct he declares to be an anachronism. We forget who it was that long ago declared this particular word to be the best he knew for a speaker or writer who wished to express disapprobation without giving his reasons for it. Mr. Haweis, however, is wastful, for he not only employs the saving term, but gives his reasons likewise. These reasons are rather long, but practically come to this. The Liberal clergy are very valuable to the Church, therefore they ought not to leave her. Also there is no reason why they should leave her, unless they have committed technical offences, for which "the Administration" can turn them out. Mr. Haweis is quite lavish in the expression of his opinion that, if this is the case, they ought to go. If you are expelled, go by all means, he says—which seems a piece of advice verging on the superfluous; but, if you are not expelled, by all means stick. Mr. Capes had previo indeed, in a manner so gratuitously dispassionate that it locks terribly like irony. He informs his readers that "a large number terribly like irony. He informs his readers that "a large number of the Liberal clergy disbelieve in the miraculous" altogether, but, being men of "robust and simple minds," they reflect that all they being men of "robust and simple minds," they reflect that all they have got to do is not "in so many words to attack the Thirty-nine Articles." Therefore they robustly and simply hold their "curacies, livings, and positions as members of our Cathedral establishments"; nor, according to Mr. Capes's views of casuistry, are they to be blamed. We do not know how far the robust holders of this convenient view would accept Mr. Capes's spokesmanship, but we have not yet seen any disclaimer; and Mr. Haweis's letter looks, on the contrary, much more like an endorsement. So that, on the whole, it would appear that poor Mr. Stopford Brooke has exposed himself to the arrows of both sides. Orthodoxy, while exonerating his morals, cannot but regard him as something of an apostate; latitudinarianism looks at him with disgust, as at a feeble brother much lacking in simplicity, who has not the wit to save his temporalities (if he had any) with a robust distinguo.

It cannot be denied that these documents, taken together and studied with attention, are in the highest degree instructive, though the word "instructive" cannot be here regarded as a synonym for its congener, "edifying." "I," says the Dean of

It cannot be denied that these documents, taken together and studied with attention, are in the highest degree instructive, though the word "instructive" cannot be here regarded as a synonym for its congener, "edifying," "I," says the Dean of Westminster, with simplicity certainly, if not with robustness, "am, by a pure antiquarian accident, exempted from supervision in my management of the building committed to my charge. I have availed myself of this accident to give a grave scandal to most of the earnest members of my own communion, in pursuance of a private fad of my own. This fad, however, is, I must tell you, connected with a larger question. The persons I have admitted of grace to Westminster Abbey might just as well come of right. There really is nothing to prevent them. They have only got to declare quite colourlessly their general assent to a doctrine made up of an infinity of other doctrines, which they are quite at liberty to pick and choose. It is true that their fathers, and, indirectly, they themselves, objected to these very doctrines, not one of which was more in the Prayer-book then than it is now; but that does not matter." Then Mr. Capes takes up the ball, and proceeds to show that not merely a very qualified assent to the doctrines of the Prayer-book, but a disbelief in the miraculous altogether, is quite compatible with the holding of the Church's functions, the wearing of her livery, the pocketing of her stipends. And, finally, Mr. Haweis rounds off the matter by pointing out that the clergy not only may so hold on, but that it is their duty to hold on, because of their extreme intrinsic value to the Church itself. It has not been thought of late years that a clergyman held, as a rule, a position of ideal comfort and happiness; but Mr. Haweis's contention restores him to all, and more than all, than was ever supposed to be his. His duty, his vanity, and his

interest, all converge and unite in one sweet compulsion to make him "hold his own," as Miss Frances Parnell would say. Far be it from him to be so anachronistic as to feel repug taking money in virtue of an adhesion which he has pr be it from him to be so anachronistic as to feel repugnance at taking money in virtue of an adhesion which he has practically recanted, at pronouncing with an air of solemnity words which are to him but vain breath, at wearing the uniform of an institution which he is doing what in him lies to subvert and destroy. It is his duty not to take his valuable services away, and the conviction that they are valuable is sure to strengthen him as much as the sight of his banker's book in the perception of that duty. So, no doubt, Marlborough and Godolphin, when they served William in name and James in fact, felt comfortably convinced that the value of their services to England was such that it would be culpable to deprive her of them by a retirement to St. Germains. Only when they are expelled—that is. was such that it would be culpable to deprive her of them by a retirement to St. Germains. Only when they are expelled—that is, we suppose, when they are deprived of their temporalities, for we do not quite know what else expulsion means—then Mr. Haweis is clear that they should go. Their services being declined, and the consideration for those services brutally withheld, there is clearly nothing else for them to do. Indeed the argument of all these good persons holds together with a delightful consistency. Logically there is literally nothing to be said against them. Ethically there is no doubt a good deal. But ethics is, on the whole, rather an effete science, and perhaps they do well to disregard it. Nevertheless, some faint satisfaction may be permitted to minds neither simple nor robust in feeling that a standard of less robustness and simplicity obtains in the ordinary dealings of life.

CHEAP-TRIPPERS.

ANY person who may have been moved by the crowded state of seaside places in the South, and by terror of cockney excursionists, to spend his holiday in one of the Northern counties, will have reaped small advantage from the change of latitude. It is true that the race of 'Arry is not so widely known in the North as in the South; but the mining and manufacturing districts of Lancashire and Yorkshire provide a corresponding plague which, if less offensive as regards the individuals composing it, is rendered even more terrible by force of numbers. Railway officials, and after them the general public, have given to these hordes the name of "cheap-trippers." Descended from the barbarians who were the terror of civilized nations in centuries gone by, they have kept to some extent the nomadic instincts of their fathers, and emerge at intervals from the smoke and dust of their mines and factories to rub elbows with those who enjoy a purer air and less circumscribed

some extent the nomadic instincts of their fathers, and emerge at intervals from the smoke and dust of their mines and factories to rub elbows with those who enjoy a purer air and less circumscribed range of vision. An inexperienced visitor to a North-country watering-place may go down to the sea for his early morning swim, rejoicing in the quiet of the place, and looking forward to a peaceful day in the open air. But the Gaul is at the gates. As he returns from the shore, and looks towards the railway-station, he sees the streets black with a crowd that grows and spreads till it covers the land as completely as a swarm of locusts in South Africa. On inquiring from a native what it all means, he is told that "a trip is in" from some large manufacturing town, and his peace is gone, for that day at least.

It is not only those places known as health resorts which the cheap-tripper delights to visit. Sometimes a large mining district is deserted for a day while its inhabitants go to swell the population of a crowded city. A business man as he walks the streets finds his path blocked by a crowd of gaping women who chatter in an almost unknown tongue, and are far too bewildered to get out of the way. Next he perhaps encounters a gang of colliers, who half poison him with the smell of rank tobacco, and hoot at him because he wears a high hat. It is curious that the two sexes are rarely seen together from the time when they leave the train until the hour of departure. The men parade the town in close order, followed at a respectful distance by a train of women and children, as the custom is with primitive man. They hustle every one off the pavement, and when in a good temper treat the police with utter indifference. The dignity of the Church receives from them as the custom is with primitive man. They fusite every one out the pavement, and when in a good temper treat the police with utter indifference. The dignity of the Church receives from them no more consideration than the majesty of the law. A closely-shaven curate, who was walking down a street clad in his cassock, was once horrified by hearing shouted across the road the inquiry whether it was down as a led or a less."

whether "yonder was a lad or a lass."

Next to publicans, the proprietors of china shops seem to profit most by these excursionists. Every woman thinks it necessary to most by these excursionists. Every woman thinks it necessary to take home with her a small white mug with a suitable inscription, or a plate stamped with a view of the town she has visited. There is a large demand, too, for balloons; and the extent of the family may often be approximately ascertained by the number of these trophies which a fond mother carries with her to the station. The tendency of the men to limit their expenditure to the purchase of refreshment is almost universal; and we are disposed to regard as a model of conjugal devotion a collier who once waylaid a lady as she was leaving her milliner's, attracted her attention by a nudge of the elbow, and, pointing to a jacket in the window, asked whether she thought it would cost more than thirty shillings. He was referred to the milliner; and, on meeting the same lady afterwards in the street, he greeted her with that peculiar sidelong jerk of the head which is the recognized method of saluting an acquaintance in the North, and said in a solemn tone, "It were fifty."

His annual visit to the search is to the control of the control of the control.

His annual visit to the seaside is to the collier something more

than a mere holiday. It is the occasion of a solemn ceremony. On this day alone in the whole year he is completely washed. As a this day alone in the whole year he is completely washed. As a rule, he regards total submersion as not merely unnecessary, but absolutely harmful; and, after a day's work in the pit, he never washes below the waist. It is an article of belief among colliers that anything more than this diminishes their strength; and we have heard an ex-collier justify the prejudice on what he called the scientific ground that excessive washing removed the "natural oil of the skin." However, an exception is made in favour of seawater, and even a collier seldom returns home unwashed from his visit to Southport or Blackpool. But the institution of bathing-machines is a refinement beyond his understanding, and he occasionally comes into collision with the local authorities through his more primitive notions on the subject. At one seaside place with more primitive notions on the subject. At one seaside place with which we are acquainted, a kind of little war raged for some which we are acquainted, a kind of little war raged for some months on this delicate question. The difficulty was at last solved by some ingenious person discovering that the jurisdiction of the authorities did not extend beyond the limits of the borough, which were placed very near indeed to the bathing-machine station; and henceforth a large company of al fresco bathers was wont to stir up the impotent rage of the owners of bathing-vans by taking up a position under their very eyes, and there disporting themselves with a degree of comfort and economy unknown before the date of

Dinner is of course the central point round which the day's arrangements group themselves. It is perhaps a more important event among North-country people in general than among dwellers in the South. It might be a difficult point to decide whether a Lancashire collier or a London house-painter could drink the more. Lancashire collier or a London house-painter could drink the more. Possibly at the season when houses are generally undergoing repairs and decoration, constant practice might give the victory to the Londoner. But in the matter of eating the decision would certainly be reversed. A party of cheap-trippers in the North would regard with contemptuous surprise the irregular meal, eater from a basket on the beach, which is so common a spectacle at Brighton and other South-coast watering-places. The streets are haunted by touts from various eating-houses, who sometimes even invade the railwaystations and centivate their victims by a haunted by touts from various eating-houses, who sometimes even invade the milway-stations, and captivate their victims by a glowing description of "our two-shilling dinner." The most successful of these places are often kept by local celebrities; some retired wreatler, or champion swimmer, who makes up for bad provisions by the glory of his name and the brightness of his medals, much as Squire Warrington in the Virginians sought to divert attention from the smallness of his ale by a magnificent show of family plate on the sideboard. Some streets seem to be entirely occupied by these places of refreshment; from every window issues that savoury steam which, if we may believe Homer, was more grateful to the gods of old than it is to mere human nostrils; while the evidence of ears and eyes suggests that M. Zola might have gathered some valuable hints for gests that M. Zola might have gathered some valuable hints for his description of a dinner in L'Assommoir from observation of and description of a dinner in LAssommor from observation of English cheap-trippers. It is not surprising that a certain lethargy prevails after dinner; some aid or supersede the process of digestion by a short sail; others drive about aimlessly in huge vehicles furnished with very insufficient horse-power. The majority lounge about the streets in a half-torpid condition, like wasps in autumn. A few of the heaviest ride on donkeys, and a good many children contrive to less themselves while their prevait are many children contrive to lose themselves while their parents are indulging in an after-dinner nap. Towards tea-time the crowd revives somewhat, and soon afterwards the town begins to empty

To all appearance, the one element in the cheap-tripper's com-position which raises him much above the lower animals is his love of music. His taste is not refined, but it exists, and only requires cultivation. A small band of itinerant musicians is always the centre of a crowd; and even a blind man singing revivalist hymns to the accompaniment of a concertina draws a tolerably large audience. But the form of entertainment which excites the greatest enthusiasm is a bress-hand contest between excites the greatest enthusiasm is a brass-band contest between two or more districts. The town which offers such an attraction is sure of an enormous concourse of visitors. There is generally a considerable amount of betting on the result—indeed it is difficult to imagine a contest of any kind about which a Northdifficult to imagine a contest of any kind about which a North-countryman would not bet. Party feeling runs high, and all fortissimo passages are greeted with shouts of delight, for the cheap-tripper's sympathies in music, like Mr. Pickwick's in poli-tics, are on the side of the stronger. Stringed instruments he holds in contempt, and would no doubt share the opinion of Dr. Johnson on the subject of a violin solo. We should not recommend a nervous vocalist to sing before an audience of cheap-trippers, for their criticisms are expressed in a very outspoken manner, and moreover, if the air of a song is well known, they are apt to in-ternolate a charse.

moreover, if the air of a song is well known, they are apt to interpolate a chorus.

All things considered, it is not surprising that cheap-trippers are regarded without affection by the inhabitants of the places to which they resort. It is not pleasant to see beautiful country overum by an unappreciative horde intent upon noise and often upon mischief, nor is it agreeable to have the streets rendered impassable for ladies by the presence of drunken roughs. But some excuse is to be found for the unruly behaviour of illiterate holiday-makers in the character of the amusements generally provided for them. They can scarcely be expected to devote a long day to the peaceful contemplation of the beauties of nature, nor, on the other hand, do swings, roundabouts, donkey-rides, and rifle-galleries satisfy the desire of those who have few resources within themselves for something definite to do. We do not venture to suggest any

solution of the problem, but it may be respectfully recommended to the consideration of those who profess great anxiety to improve the condition of the working classes. Something has from time to time been done in this direction by owners of great estates, and others who have it in their power to contribute to the enjoyment others who have it in their power to contribute to the enjoyment of holiday-makers, but their efforts are seldom sustained. Some mischief is done, whether deliberately or heedlessly, by members of the crowd, and their entertainer for the future holds aloof from them. He is sometimes, no doubt, over-sensitive; but it is difficult to keep up an interest in people who abuse kindness. After all, the holiday, though it might be better spent, does good physically, if not morally. The benefits of pure air are not destroyed by the utterance of foul language, and fresh scenes, though they are not consciously taken in or appreciated, must afford a grateful relief to the monotonous drudgery of every-day work. The very fact that there is a day in the year to look forward to and back upon gives an element of variety to lives in which variety is not too plentiful. Even a man who is taken home by his wife in a state of stupid intoxication is at least no worse than if his time had been spent in a beerhouse at home. He is certainly not more drunk than if he had been at a funeral.

DAILY BLUNDERS.

DAILY BLUNDERS.

Like many other old sayings, sacred and profane, that which refers to the blind leading the blind constantly receives fresh illustrations, and we fear that among these must be classed to a great extent a well-meant attempt to keep people clear of some common errors which has been produced under the title of A Dictionary of Daily Blunders. This, we are told in a preface, "has been compiled from a collection made by the author during the past twenty years, and the examples are mostly taken from modern literature." It must be admitted that the author has at least shown good judgment in choosing a field whence to take his illustrations; and it is with becoming modesty that he writes that, though "due care has been taken in the preparation of the Dictionary," yet there is doubtless plenty of room for criticism, and the chances are that he will be "proclaimed a blunderer." "If it should be thought," he also observes, "that the blunders are occasionally frivolous, or so obvious that no one would ever make them, we would remind those who consult these pages that many incorrect expressions which one class of people would never think of uttering are used daily by other classes." There is certainly evidence enough, of one kind or another, in the volume before us, of the existence of blunders which could hardly have been suspected.

The lexicographer begins his volume with a paragraph which contains one smalled her attains the first textures. "(A.A.)

of the existence of blunders which could hardly have been suspected.

The lexicographer begins his volume with a paragraph which contains one remarkably safe statement. "An iron urn and silver teapot were on the table' should be 'An iron urn and a silver teapot.' An silver teapot is an obvious error." This word an seems indeed to have a singular interest for the compiler; for shortly afterwards we find him falling foul of the apparently unobjectionable expression "an unfeeling, grasping man." He has at once perceived that to say "an grasping man "would be "an obvious error," and he also perceives that to say "an unfeeling and a grasping man" would be "ambiguous, for it suggests two men." He finds a short and simple way out of the difficulty he has so ingeniously made for himself by substituting "He was an unfeeling as well as a grasping man." The writer is as great on matters of spelling and pronunciation as he is on the nice conduct of the articles; and we shall presently come to an instance in which, with regard to one word, he combines some novel information on both points. Something like the effect of a sudden blow is produced by the amazing statement that "advantageous should not be pronounced ad-van-tag'e-us, but ad-van-tage-us"; and there is a certain surprise in finding that "antipodean should be pronounced be-troth, not be-troth," and it is quite true that Bon Marché should not be bronounced we be be be be took in the other hand, to deny that by some people "betroth is pronounced be-troth, not be-troth," and it is quite true that Bon Marché should not be pronounced Buenos Ayres as we are now told to do, "Bō-nos Ariz," and never did we know of Byron that "the poet called himself Birn, not Byron." Calais, we learn also for the first time, "is pronounced Kal-la," as also that "cayenne is pronounced kah-yen." On the other hand, it is quite possible that "coz, for cousin is as bad as viz, for videlicit (sic)"; although we fail to see where in either case, to use an Americanism, the badness comes in. In cont the badness comes in. In contrast to the bold assertion of these passages is the halting observation, true as far as it goes, that "aggravating has not quite the same meaning as irritating, though sometimes used for it." Possibly, however, it is on principle that the author leaves his readers to find out some things for themselves. This view seems to be supported by the oracular observation made under the head "Advertisements." "Errors are often tion made under the head "Advertisements." "Errors are often committed through a consideration of brevity." Equally pregnant and equally vague is the paragraph devoted to "anachronism," which "is pronounced ana'-chronism by Johnson, and an-ak'-ron-ism by Walker. Anachronisms should be avoided, as indicating either ignorance or carelessuess." These statements are perhaps less valuable than some which settle with a prompt and pleasing decisiveness what have hitherto been moot points. For instance, a discussion has lately been carried on in a

contemporary as to the proper pronunciation of the melancholy Jacques's name, and various reasons for various methods have been brought forward and supported with more or less vigour. It seemed indeed that the controversy might go on for ever; but it must surely stop now that the lexicographer of blunders has delivered himself of this authoritative decision. "Jacques is pronounced zhak, not jakes." It is but rarely that the judicial attitude of mind here exemplified seems to be affected by indignation or irritation at the folly of mankind; but, in one instance at least, there is some sign of this. On the word "heinous" the compiler briefly and sternly says, "Look to the spelling and pronounce hā-nus."

It has been observed above that in the constant

nounce hā-nus."

It has been observed above that in the case of one word the compiler throws a new light both on spelling and pronunciation, and this case we proceed to quote. "Majoribanks (a family name) is pronounced Marjanks." That the r is not dropped by a clerical error is proved by the position which the name occupies in the dictionary; the j for ch is of course a more venial mistake. As we go further into the volume the amount of new information best word upon us becomes if anything still fuller. information bestowed upon us becomes, if anything, still fuller. Who was aware before the publication of this work that Mun-

information bestowed upon us becomes, if anything, still fuller. Who was aware before the publication of this work that Munchausen ought to be pronounced Munchaw'sen, mythology with a short y, Neufchatel ner-sha-tel, and all the derivatives of "patron" with a long a? Before coming as far as this, however, we should have noticed an ingenious grammatical observation given under the word "filing." "The past tense of this verb is flang, and the pa. p. flung. 'He flang a stone at the rat, which killed the animal, and it was flung into the water.' Flung is commonly used for flang, but the latter word is grammatically correct." With this we may couple a remark of the same kind with regard to the word "full." "This adjective being in the superlative degree, we cannot properly say 'a fuller bag' or 'the fullest bag,'"

We have noticed that the author, as a rule, pronounces his judgments with singular decisiveness. There are, however, occasions when he seems to be a little perplexed. For instance, though under the head "Americanism" he tells us that such an Americanism as "center" for "centre" is an error and should be avoided, yet he inserts the word "sabre" by itself, and merely remarks upon it that it "is spelled saber by some American writers." In other cases he has made a sagacious discovery of errors constantly committed by most American and English writers. "Over head and ears," he wisely points out, "is an incorrect phrase; over head must be over ears." This has impressed the lexicographer so much that he repeats his observation under another heading later on. "'The country is over head and ears in debt.' If it is over head it must be over ears." So with "head over heels." "'He fell in the water, head over heels.' This is equivalent to saying that he jumped in feet first. 'Heels over head 'was no doubt intended."

Returning to the question of pronunciation, we learn with some

Returning to the question of pronunciation, we learn with some surprise that staves, the plural of staff, "should be pronounced starfs, not staves, which is the correct pronunciation of staves, the plural of stave, a part of a cask"; and this is followed by the assertion that Stephanus is pronounced Stef-an'-us, with the accent on the second syllable. Some curious and instructive sentences might be founded on the information provided for the ignorant by the compiler of the Dictionary of Daily Blunders. "Stef-an'-us," we might be told, "and the poet Birn went on a two'er together to Kal'-la, where they met two poor relations whom they patronized, and with whom they ate kah-yen pepper. Under the influence of a gla'-moor they attempted to steal a vaze and some staves from Mun-chaw'sen, but Zhak came from Ner-sha-tel, flang stones at them, and beat them with starfs. The poet Gur'teh now came to the rescue of the two'-ĕr-ists with a fai'kon, which flew at the assailant and throw him heels over head in the water. After this, those of the party who were over head in debt took refuge at Bo-nos Ariz, where a kum'-rade, who was a far-ma-sū-ti-cal chemist, gave them some pik'-ant quin-in (not kwi-nee'n) to cure them of tis'-is."

Two very odd remarks of the lexicographer's we have thus far

Two very odd remarks of the lexicographer's we have thus far omitted. He asserts that in the sentence "such a bad character is uncommon," such should be so. It is not, of course, to be supposed that he really means people to write "so a bad character; and yet, if he were to be judged by the hypercritical standard of accuracy which he here and there adopts, it would be fair enough to assume this. Again, "round," he says, "does not admit of comparison; but anything not quite round may be described as roundish." This baffles criticism as much as the American proposition, described in one of Max Adeler's books, to build boats in the shape of an inclined plane so that they might run down a level canal. Among all the absurdities, pedantries, and blunders of this Dictionary some good, of course, is to be found. For instance, the compiler is sound on the point of "St. James's, not St. James', and he has some good remarks on punctuation. On the whole, however, we are afraid it must be said that the Dictionary of Daily Blunders is but a blundering Dictionary.

FRÉJUS.

A MONG the dead cities of the decaying Provençal seaboard there are few more curiously and more hopelessly decayed than Fréjus. Lying outside the commercial revolution which has regenerated the coast from Marseilles to Toulon, as well as outside

the tidal wave of invalids which now breaks yearly over the eastern the tidal wave of invalids which now breaks yearly over the eastern shore from Cannes to Nice, it occupies the centre of an intermemediate neglected belt, where memories of the past alone are likely to tempt the passing tourist. Indeed the once great and busy Roman port of Forum Julii has now not a single moderately good inn at which even the most hardy archaeologist could venture to pass a night of sleepless discomfort. Fréjus can only practically be visited by day trips from Cannes, and the wise explorer will even then provide himself with luncheon before leaving home, rather than trust to the slender capabilities of the Julian cuisine. But if he is content to leave for a while the exquisite scenery of the gulf and islands for the somewhat desolate alluvial delta of the Argens, he will find much to interest and still more to instruct him in the unsavoury relies of the famous colony.

The deep and strongly-marked valley which separates the iso-

The deep and strongly-marked valley which separates the iso-lated schistose mountain system of the Maures from the main limelated schistose mountain system of the Maures from the main limestone ranges of Provence pours all its eastern drainage-waters into
the sea by the single channel of the Argens. Close to the mouth of
the little river as it once flowed, and seated on the lower slopes of
the Esterel hills, the old Ligurian village and the newer Roman
town looked down upon a bay of the Mediterranean which then
washed the very foot of their solid walls. But at the present
day the silt brought down by so many mountain torrents has long
filled up the whole expanse of the bay, from the outliers of the
Maures to those of the Esterel; and Fréjus now stands high and
dry, at a distance of no less than a mile from the nearest shore. The
view from the town as it actually exists is singularly mattractive. view from the town as it actually exists is singularly unattractive, judged at least by the standard of Provençal coastwise watering-places. Not that sea and mountain are wanting from the picture; places. Not that sea and mountain are wanting from the picture; but their very presence renders it provokingly second-rate. The foreground consists of a wide alluvial lowland, the great sheet of dry and baking silt which has choked up the ancient port, and through whose arid flats the Argens wanders aimless and unseen a mile or two to southward. Only a glimpse of the sea can be caught, like a blue line above the flat plain in the foreground. Beyond the dusty level to the west rise the rounded bosses of the Mantagnes des Maures, the old and picturesque stronghold of the Beyond the dusty level to the west rise the rounded bosses of the Montagnes des Maures, the old and picturesque stronghold of the Barbary pirates; but their wooded heights lose almost all their native beauty when seen from the side of Fréjus, owing in part to the dwarfing of their perspective by the distance, and in part to the very prosaic foreground of cottage gardens, thick with formal rows of cabbages and artichokes. Eastward, the jagged peaks of the Esterel stand out more boldly against the sky, their naked pinnacles of rock forming a grand chain of saw-like edges, which contrast finely with the tamer outline of the Maures. Nothing indeed could ever succeed in spoiling the poetic grandeur of those Titanic red porphyry teeth, pointed and serrated like the petrified fangs of some gigantic unimagined saurian. But even the Esterel itself looks less massive and less imposing from Fréjus than from any other point of view. The treacherous river which has filled up the port, and thus annihilated the commercial existence of the old town, seems to have carried its malice so far as to have disfigured all its natural beauties, and left it without istence of the old town, seems to have carried its malice so far as to have disfigured all its natural beauties, and left it without even the solace of its originally picturesque situation. For it can hardly be doubted that when the waves washed either rocky headland from the red cliffs of the Esterel to the black slaty crags of the Maures, the Roman colonists must have looked out from their battlements upon one of the loveliest amongst all the lovely bays of the smiling Provence for the narrowness, the dirt, and the discomfort of its streets. Such an abundance and variety of evil odours can hardly be found in any other

Modern Fréjus has few rivals even in Provence for the narrowness, the dirt, and the discomfort of its streets. Such an abundance and variety of evil odours can hardly be found in any other town of France. The tourist who comes to visit it with his mind full of historical recollections, who expects to find some halo of the Phocæan settlers still clinging around their ancient home, will have his anticipations rudely shocked by the sights and smells which assail him on the way from the railway station to the Porte Dorée. The streets are now unnecessarily encumbered with unwholesome rubbish, and seem utterly neglected even by those Republican authorities who have taken upon themselves so vigorously the task of regenerating the towns of France. The Amphitheatre, just outside the town, and classed amongst the protected historical monuments, is in itself a fine ruin, which would thoroughly repay intelligent care, such as that so well bestowed at Nimes and Arles, in clearing out its encumbered arcades. It is a magnificent building, rudely but solidly constructed in small square stonework of the first century. But at present a cart-road runs from door to door, through the centre of the arena; the interior serves as a sort of supplementary farmyard; waggons and ploughs occupy the arched passages beneath the broken tiers; and the litter of cattle and horses fills up or renders impassable the vaults in many places. The mania for restoration, on the other hand, has taken the place of rational cleaning. Several of the round Roman arches have been rebuilt in modern stonework, whose fresh and brand-new trimness does not add to the effect of the mouldering masonry at its side. Altogether, the appearance of the whole amphitheatre cannot be considered as creditable to French archeologists, as regards alike their acts of commission and of omission.

The ancient walls possess perhaps greater interest, but are hardly

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The ancient walls possess perhaps greater interest, but are hardly less neglected than the Amphitheatre. They enclose a space five times as great as the existing city. Indeed the Roman town must have been one of the first provincial importance. The capital of the Oxybian mountaineers, and afterwards one of the chief factories dependent upon the great Phocæan metropolis of Massalia, it became for a time, after the fall of its mother-city before Cæsar,

the chief seaport of the province. Its name of Forum Julii shows the high position which the Dictator intended it should fill, in the place of unfaithful Marseilles. The massive and extensive ramparts which hemmed it in can still be distinctly traced round their whole circuit, through fields and gardens, while the shrunken modern town now occupies only a small hillock in their southwestern corner. The Porte Dorée, the finest of the existing gates, also in masonry of the first century, cannot be closely approached, as it gives shelter in its present state to a few pigs and fowls, and has been closed from public access by a rough wooden door. Like the Amphitheatre, however, it has fallen into the evil hands of the restorer, and has suffered almost as much from excessive affection as from careless neglect. Three or four other gates of less importance, but equally encumbered, are found in other places, and one has fallen a victim to the construction of the modern railway station. The entrance to the old port is marked by an octagonal tower, known as the Lanterne d'Auguste, which doubtless served the purpose of a pharos. The railway now runs on dry land through the midst of the silted harbour, begun by C. Cæsar and completed under his nephew. It must once have covered a considerable space, since Augustus stationed here the two hundred galleys which he had captured at Actium. As late as the reign of Henry II., the port was still serviceable for purposes of war; but the rapid accumulation of alluvium at the mouth of the torrents has long completely severed it from the sea, and Fréjus has now sunk to the position of an essentially agricultural centre.

centre.

In the interior of the town, fragments of Roman work, more or less disguised, exist in profusion. Ruins of a small temple, with mixed stone and brick courses of the fourth century, occur in one of the least narrow alleys; and numerous smaller pieces can be noticed among the tortuous lanes by any visitor who chooses to pick his way with care through what the Laureate succinctly describes as "the poached filth that floods the middle street." But the glory of Roman Fréjus consists in its great aqueduct outside the town, one of those splendid works which watered the dry lowlands of Provence under the early Emperors as they have never yet been watered before or since. It is curious that even in our own day, when Frenchmen propose to irrigate the sandy flats of Sahara, the south of France itself is far drier and less fertile than under the rule of the Antonines. The Camargue, that great deltaic island of the Rhône, whose rich alluvial soil now lies barren over thousands of acres for want of irrigation, formed a waving sheet of corn in the days of Strabo, and earned for itself the name of the granary of Gaul. The valley of Arles and the neighbouring plain of the Crau, covered by that vast mass of glacial boulders and pebbles which Zeus, according to the Phocæan legend, hurled down upon the enemies of Heracles, is now once more partly fertilized by the Canal de Craponne, which has but lately restored a semblance of life to the western edges of the stony waste. The Pont du Gard itself is only the chief existing survivor of a vast system of Imperial irrigation works. All along the dry southern coast little ruined aqueducts, like that at Vallauris, still attest the completeness of the Roman arrangements. Of this vast system the Fréjus canal formed a part. Taking its origin from the town, it runs across country alternately as a subterranean and an aerial channel, supported in places by single or double arcades, and often flanked by solid buttresses. The masonry belongs to the same type and date as that of the Amph

same type and date as that of the Amphitheatre, and the arches are seldom of equal or regular dimensions. They may be easily followed throughout their whole course. A fine mass, overgrown with ivy and maidenhair ferns, still remains standing in picturesque ruin near the gates of the town.

Among mediæval monuments the most important is of course the cathedral, upon which Fréjus may now be said almost entirely to subsist—at least in a social sense. Though much restored at various dates, it still forms a splendid and characteristic example of Provençal Romanesque architecture of the eleventh century. Its heavy and sombre exterior, almost entirely devoid of ornamentation, has yet a simple impressiveness of its own, by dint of sheer massive solidity. One sees in its strong and straightforward design some impress of that Roman decisiveness which so clearly marks the gates and buildings of the antique city. The interior is striking for its gloom and solemnity, for the wast size and simplicity of its supporting columns, and for the magnificence of its plain vaulted stone roof. Nothing more grand or more depressing can be imagined than the leaden appearance of its blue-grey arches. A few good monuments, some excellent wood-carving, and a picture of the school of Giotto, regilded and repainted with somewhat obtrusive fidelity to its original tints, complete the chief internal attractions. A pair of magnificent oaken doors, however, is kept by the sacristan as a parting treat, and only uncovered by special request. The baptistery, said by local tradition to be adapted from a temple of Diana, and certainly of much earlier date than the main building, rests wholly uponeight fine monolithic granite pillars with white marble capitals, which might well have come down to us from the fourth century. Fragments of Roman fluted shafts are built into the walls of the tower and of the episcopal palace; and the cloisters contain a number of much later clustered columns, extremely light and graceful in design, most of which were unfor

of disinterring these buried treasures. To judge by the few samples still visible, the cloister when entire must have possessed a singular and very unusual type of beauty. A single touch which gives vivid reality to the history of Fréjus may be noted in all the av votos. Every one of these rude and flimsy pictures, belonging to the kind so common in Italian and Provençal churches, shows the Madonna or the patron saint in the act of rescuing some distressed votary, and bears the date of place in the stereotyped form, "In Foro Julii." That form has doubtless come down in unbroken succession through popular tradition from the earliest age of the Church, and its natural occurrence on these naïve pictures is a striking mark of that continuity with Roman thought and Roman manners which is perhaps more noticeable in Provence than even in Italy itself. Visigoths, Burgundians, Franks, and Arabs, each have come and gone again; but Fréjus still retains all but unaltered its Roman identity, its Roman tongue, its Romanized population, and its Roman title of Forum Julii.

THE MISTERY OF THE MERCERS IN CHEAP.

L'HE association of bodies of citizens engaged in the same trade is probably older than the recorded history of London. Companies, in the modern sense of the word, existed as long ago as the reign of Henry II., and even then it would appear that there were authorized Companies and unauthorized. The mystery of a Company is now indeed its origin and history; but to say so is to misuse the word "mystery." Mr. Riley pointed out its derivation and meaning in his well-known book on the medieval records of the City. The trade or craft of an artisan or merchant should be called a "mistery"—a word, however, which Mr. Riley avoided, observing that the old words "mestera" or "mestier," usually translated by "mystery," and the obsolete "mistery," really refer to the Latin ministerium, "a serving to," and not to mysterium, "a secret." The oldest "mistery" is the Saddlers', yet they were never reckoned among the so-called "great Companies," and precedence has always been yielded to the Mercers, although their earliest charter was only granted by Richard II. This application, by the way, of the word "company" is wholly modern, and has never been the formal title of any of the City Guilds. "The Master, Wardens, Court of Assistants and Generality of the Mistery of Mercers" appears to be their full title; but in their oldest charter they are "Homines de Misteriæ Merceræ Civitatis London." How far such Guilds or Mysteries were established for mercantile and how far for religious purposes need not be discussed here; but there can be no doubt of the close connexion that every City Company originally kept up with the Church. Charitable objects, pensions to poor members and their families, and especially education, have always been among their chief concerns; so that it is not quite correct to say that they do not fulfil their primary functions, even though they may have nothing to do with trade or its regulation. From their first incorporation each Mistery has been the trustee of funds for various kinds of charitable ends—ends still

The Mercers may have been originally a trading Company in the modern sense of the words. The best authority on the history of the City Companies says that they continued to trade as late as the reign of Elizabeth; but there are reasons to doubt the correctness of this view. It is certain, however, that at a very early period they formed a guild of traders, and set up a hall for themselves on the north side of Cheap. The site of their hall became the chapel of the Priory of St. Thomas of Acon, and they removed to larger premises in the middle of the market-place, where there was a field, which from its contiguity was called after the King's shed or booth, for witnessing tournaments and processions in Cheap, the Crownseld Field. It was situated between the modern Friday Street and Bow Church, and must have been a remnant of the ancient open market-place, or possibly a waste unbuilt upon, though enclosed within the great Roman wall erected in the fourth century. That many such places existed within the City boundaries there can be little doubt; but whether they had never been built upon, or whether they fell into desolation after the departure of the Romans, history is silent. This one in particular cannot have been very large, and early in the thirteenth century it was covered with the tents and booths of the permanent fair of which Cheap so long consisted. "For I read," says Stowe, "of no houses otherwise on that side of the street, but of divers sheds." This mention of "divers sheds" is very interesting. It not only betrays to us the condition of the great City market-place—the Forum, as it was called—but also gives us a clue to the meaning of the modern name "Cheapside." The Cheap consisted, perhaps even in Saxon times, of two oblong spaces. One was north of the main thoroughfare, and eastward of the royal precincts of Wood Street and Adel Street. It comprised Milk Street and Ironmonger Lane, and in its most southern part was the Poultry Market. The other portion lay southward and westward, and included the he

was Cheap, and Cheapside was the roadway along the north side. There was no Cheapside at Eastcheap. There the market was held at the cross roads. But when we speak of Cheap, or Westcheap, we mean not Cheapside alone, but Old Change, Friday Street, Bread Street, Milk Street, Honey Lane, and, in short, all the different thoroughfares which now by their names only point to the time when they were alleys of booths, or, as they were called, selds, in which the sellers of different wares kept up a constant fair. Similar examples are to be found in many towns. There is one at Troyes, as was pointed out in these pages eleven stant fair. Similar examples are to be found in many towns. There is one at Troyes, as was pointed out in these pages eleven years ago. There was one at York. The archeologist of the present day, who is never content till he can find out the meanings of old names, does not take the addition of "side" to the name of Cheap as being a matter of no consequence; but this solution, affording as it does a working theory of Cheapside, so to speak, may perhaps be considered satisfactory till a better has been discovered. That the Romans should have included so large a piece of the wall may be accounted for on vered. That the Komans should have included so large a piece of recant land in the circuit of the wall may be accounted for on various grounds. It was probably not built over in their time. No pavements or other signs of Roman buildings have been found there, but beyond, near St. Martin-le-Grand, there are such traces, No pavements or other signs of Koman buildings have been found there, but beyond, near St. Martin-le-Grand, there are such traces, and it is perhaps not hazarding too wild a guess to suppose that some important public building stood near where Guildhall stands now, or between it and Goldsmiths' Hall—perhaps the country villa of the governor. The walls swept round it to afford it the protection wanting in the year 296, when, as we read, the mercenaries of Allectus easily plundered London. It must, however, be allowed that without the existence of some such building the wall may have been laid out on the nearly oblong plan which the Romans so much affected, and that an empty place, lying on the north side of the Watling Street, was taken in merely to give the wall a straight line from Bishopsgate to Newgate.

The Mercery thus established in the Crownseld meadow speedily became the most important place in Cheap. Henry IV. gave to the Mistery the Crownseld itself, and together with it the "seldam," a gallery from which kings had been wont to witness tournaments and processions, a kind of grand stand, which Edward III. had made close to Bow Church. The balcony on the tower of St. Mary-le-Bow, looking out on Cheapside, may be considered its lineal descendant—the representative, in fact, of that gallery of stone which Edward erected on the memorable occasion when, as Stow says, a wooden scaffold had been put up. "The higher frame in which the ladies were placed brake in sunder.

gallery of stone which Edward erected on the memorable occasion when, as Stow says, a wooden scaffold had been put up. "The higher frame in which the ladies were placed brake in sunder, whereby they were with some shame forced to fall down, by reason whereof the knights and such as were underneath, were grievously hurt." The Queen, he continues, took great care to obtain the pardon of the carpenters, and "thereby purchased great love of the people." Although this royal seld was granted to the Mercers, it continued to be used by great folk, and hence Queen Anne saw the pageant of the Lord Mayor in 1702.

The Mercers dealt in many things besides silk. In fact, as the name seems to imply, they were at first general merchants. They

name seems to imply, they were at first general merchants. The sold not only cloth, but even spices and drugs, and in short every sold not only cloth, but even spices and drugs, and in short everything that went by retail. They first among the Companies sent out and established agencies in Continental towns. Though the company of Merchant Adventurers included men of all misteries, the Mercers were greatly in the majority; and the head-quarters of the Adventurers were at Mercers' Hall. In 1438 Master Robert Large, a mercer, received as an apprentice one William Caxton, and in course of time William Caxton became "Governor beyond the sea" of the Merchant Adventurers at Bruges. His resilient have applied him first to retraine and afterwards to Caxton, and in course of time William Caxton became "Governor beyond the sea" of the Merchant Adventurers at Bruges. His position there enabled him first to patronize, and afterwards to learn, the art of printing, and to import a new mistery to England. There have been many other illustrious persons of the craft. Whittington and Gresham were both mercers, but the number of royal members of the premier Company has been small, though Queen Elizabeth was free of this mistery. Before her time, however, the old site of the Mercery had been abandoned, and the Company had returned to their original quarters on the north side of Cornhill. Their entrance porch stands where stood the house of Gilbert Becket, the father of St. Thomas of Canterbury; and here Agnes, the martyr's sister, and her husband founded a hospital in his honour, though before his actual canonization. All the authorities assert that it derived its name of the Priory of St. Thomas of Acon, or Acre, from the memory of the lady who traditionally followed Gilbert from Palestine. But Canon Robertson has pointed out that the connexion of Acre with the name originated in 1190, when, on the taking of Acre by the Crusaders, an order in honour of St. Thomas was founded there. At the dissolution the Mercers obtained the site, and, establishing a school in the chapel of St. Thomas, let the crypt as a store. Here they remain, their present buildings, which cover the site of the hospital, having been erected after the great fire by Jarman, the city architect. The old chapel had been known for its Italian sermons, which were encouraged by the Merchant Adventurers; and here Anthony de Dominis, the eccentric and unfortunate Archbishop of Spalato, preached in 1617.

ISLANDS OF THE BLEST.

EOTHEN," in his romantic chapter on Lady Hester Stan-hope, remarks that those who are wearied with the vanities of the world incline irresistibly towards the East for repose. One of Mrs. Bardell's female friends at the memorable tea-party at

"The Spaniards" expressed a very similar idea from the more vulgar and middle-class point of view when she said that there was nothing like the country for a wounded spirit. For our own part we have always fancied that, if we were mentally ailing and longing for relief, we should seek our retreat in some island home. Speculating vaguely on a highly improbable contingency, we have hesitated between the islands of the South ailing and longing for renet, we should seek our reacted as some island home. Speculating vaguely on a highly improbable contingency, we have hesitated between the islands of the South Seas and the Shetlands. We are fully alive to the bewitching faccinations of the former. We are sensible of the soothing influences of a voluptuous climate, where, lulled in your siesta by the murmur of the surf breaking softly on the beach under the shadows of the cocoa-nut palms, you might forget all the unpleasant memories that haunted you, and look listlessly to the future in the mood of the lotus-eaters. We realize the glories of tropical vegetation; of the limpid natural aquária shut in by coral reefs; of the perpetual sunshine and the perfection of moonlight, only overcast at rare intervals by some downpour of rain or a devastating tornado. We appreciate the economical conveniences of a climate where you may live on fruits and vegetables that may be had almost for the gathering; where you may disport yourself in the lightest raiment cut in the simplest fashion; and where you may dispense even with the shelter of a roof, save at exceptional seasons. We remember how islands like Otaheite or the Sandwich group exercised an irresistible fascination on our exceptional seasons. We remember how islands like Otaheite or the Sandwich group exercised an irresistible fascination on our early navigators, provoking the mutineers of the Bounty to a crime, that they might sail back even through blood to the earthly paradise of which they had had a glimpse. But then, on the other hand, we have had reason to suspect that in reality earthly paradises are non-existent. Delicious climates like those of Otaheite and Honolulu have their drawbacks. The faculties rust with disuse or neglect; inactivity, whether voluntary or enforced, develops latent diseases; you become a martyr to rheumatic gout or dyspepsia; and you are sure in any case to suffer intense irritation from the insect pests that swarm in those latitudes. Moreover, heite and Honolulu have their drawbacks. The faculties rust with disuse or neglect; inactivity, whether voluntary or enforced, develops latent diseases; you become a martyr to rheumatic gout or dyspepsia; and you are sure in any case to suffer intense irritation from the insect pests that swarm in those latitudes. Moreover, the most determined 'misanthrope, whatever may be the strength of his convictions, prefers to leave himself a loophole and a *locus pemitentica*, and the sunny archipelago of the South Seas is a very long way from London. Now we have hitherto supposed that, for all practical intents and purposes, the Shetlands were nearly as much out of our world; but in sober fact, and according to the advertisements of the Steam-packet Companies, they lie within easy reach of the railway station at Aberdeen. *Omne ignotum pro magnifico*, and we did not know very much about them; which in itself is no small recommendation. They may be included in the Scotch guide-books, and very likely they are; but, for ourselves, the author of *Waverley* was the latest trustworthy authority, and our notions of the Shetlander came from the pages of *The *Pivate*. So far as the topography and the scenery go those pages are as trustworthy now as ever. Scott had cruised round the coasts of the archipelago in the yacht of the Commissioners of Northern Lights, and had made minute observations, as was his invariable custom. We knew all about the Fitful Head and the Roost of Sumburgh, and had mastered the general configuration of those land-locked ozes which run inland among the sandhills or the scarped and seafowl-swarming precipices. Naturally we never greatly fancied the climate, though it is damp or stormy rather than bitterly cold. We have a prejudice in favour of timber and some amount of foliage; patches of barley and stunted or half-starved oats are but a poor substitute for bananas and bread-fruit groves. Flat peat mosses soon begin to pall upon one, even when varied with reaches of desolate beach. And we might possibly

thes, might rely upon dying in a green out age, times you happened to go down at sea, or have some fatal accident in fowling.

Such were our pleasant fancies as to life in the Shetland Isles; but we confess that they have been in some degree dispelled by the letters that have lately been appearing in the *Times*. Those letters are extremely readable, and apparently exhaustive of the subject. And we gather from them that, while existence in that region is as primitive as ever, it is by no means altogether so pleasant as it used to be when Scott imagined it some-

where towards the close of the seventeenth century. There are well-to-do proprietors, who have built themselves mansions which would dwarf the modest building of Burgh-Westra; nor have we any reason to suppose that these Shetland lairds neglect the reasonable duties of hospitality. But now that inns have been established in the capital of Lerwick, and that passenger steamers ply thither at regular intervals, we cannot expect the local magnates to keep open house like Magnus Troil, the monarch of Amphitryons. Should you decide to venture on that northern younge nowadays, still more should you emigrate for a prolocal magnates to keep open house like Magnus Troil, the monarch of Amphitryons. Should you decide to venture on that northern voyage nowadays, still more should you emigrate for a protracted sojourn, unless you mean to be satisfied with your own company, you ought in prudence to be provided with good introductions. We doubt whether many houses, even as dilapidated as Jarlshof, are going a-begging. And we are sure that summer lodgings in one of the sequestered rural villages would be altogether out of the question. We hear of an aggregate of turfroofed huts that may be either cowsheds or human habitations. The smoke escapes by the hole that throws light down on the fireplace, and fires must be kept going for the best part of the year. The tiny windows are darkened with the filth that has gradually gathered on them. When the doors are left open, the pigs, goats, and poultry have free admission to the family circle; and should the doors be closed against storms or snow-drift, the inmates are smoked and dried like the surplus produce of their fishing-boats. Nor, so far as sanitary matters are concerned, can any hard and fast line be drawn between the dwellers in the country and the inhabitants of the towns. The chief street in the picturesque capital of Lerwick is a bustling thoroughfare, something less in width than the narrowest of the narrow pavements in Fleet Street. If one drives along it in a pony-cart, the most pretentious of the wheeled carriages of the country, and chance to meet a wheelbarrow coming from the opposite direction, all traffic is suspended while the passage is being effected. The side lances are some of them not more than three country, and chance to meet a wheelbarrow coming from the opposite direction, all traffic is suspended while the passage is being effected. The side lanes are some of them not more than three feet broad, so that even the cramped architecture of the sunniest cities of the East is surpassed in one of the most dripping climates under heaven. It is fortunate that the steep pitch of the ground carries off much of the sewage by force of gravitation; otherwise the little metropolis might be positively stifled in odorous effluvia. That there is excessive infant mortality is by no means wonderful; the marvel is that so many of the children should manage to struggle through their tender years under conditions so terribly unfavourable. That sturdy men and buxom women are bred in Shetland is certain; and they need all their stamina and powers of endurance. The struggle with nature for bare subsistence is hard and incessant. When the fishing-boats stand out on a cruise it is in some of the most treacherous narrow seas in the world. the fishing-boats stand out on a cruise it is in some of the most treacherous narrow seas in the world; accidents, of course, are not unfrequent; and when the people have an unprecedentedly successunfrequent; and when the people have an unprecedentedly successful herring season, as in the present year, the surplus fish is wasted, and prices are lowered accordingly. The harvests of the hardiest kinds of grain must be won in the face of the most unfavourable weather; and we fancy that the agricultural implements are still nearly as primitive as when Triptolemus Yellowley longed to improve them. The women, as in all struggling and semi-barbarous communities, do far more than their share of the common work. We are told that they are to be seen toiling homeward under their heavy creels of turf from the moor; and yet even while their bodies are bent double under their burdens their fingers are indefatigably busy. They are knitting the fleecy Shetland hosiery which is sold at fancy prices in our West-end warehouses; but the original work is miserably remunerated. We should imagine that an enthusiastic anchorite, with some remains of human feeling in his work is miserably remunerated. We should imagine that an enthusiastic anchorite, with some remains of human feeling in hieart, who had withdrawn to these storm-beaten solitudes, would be perpetually laid under contribution for the wants of his poverty-stricken neighbours. Doubtless he might luxuriate by way of compensation in the grandeur of stern scenery. The rocky headlands that have been hollowed out in labyrinths of caverns by the lands that have been hollowed out in labyrinths of caverns by the relentless force of the Atlantic breakers are of course magnificent; and if you have head and nerves for the sport of sea-bird-fowling you may indulge in its pleasures to your heart's content. But, except for tolerable trout-fishing in the locks, there is an absence of all the milder forms of amusement as of the softer charms of nature. There are heres on the cornland and there are rabbits among the sandhills, but there are no grouse on the moors, and but few small birds in the hedgerows. The sojourner's daily walks would alternate for the most part between the shingly beach, the shifting sands, and the quaking peat mosses. And if you had nearly perpetual day through some part of the year, much of the rest would be blotted out in mist and storm, clouds and darkness. So that, on the whole, striking the balance between the advantages and disadvantages of the Shetlands, we come to the conclusion that, though they may be a tempting object for a flying trip, they would be the reverse of enjoyable for a prolonged residence.

REVIEWS.

DUTT'S INDIA, PAST AND PRESENT.

MR. DUTT is an industrious writer. More than a year ago we made some remarks (Saturday Review, June 21, 1879) on the two portly volumes which contained his Historical Studies,

* India, Past and Present; with Minor Essays on Cognate Subjects. By Shoshee Chunder Dutt, Rái Báhádoor. London: Chatto & Windus. 1880.

and of which the work now before us may be regarded as a continuation. He is also an industrious thinker; and much of what he says is well deserving of attention. But neither in this volume nor in his Historical Studies does he do himself justice. In both the pruning knife might with advantage have been used freely, and Mr. Dutt would have done well to determine more clearly the limits of his own knowledge. As in the former, so in the present work, he writes sensibly and forcibly on matters with which his education and experience have made him competent to deal; but in both he strays away into other matters of which he has no real grasp, although his conclusions about them are as confidently expressed as his thoughts on subjects which he has carefully worked out. It is unfortunate that in each work these crude and not very coherent speculations are obtruded on the reader in the opening pages, and that there is need both of patience and perseverance before we can discover that the book cannot fairly be dismissed as the superficial talk of an inexact and half-educated writer. In both works he shows that he has carefully studied the past history and the present condition of India, and that his knowledge of the habits and wants of the people justifies his speaking with authority on many questions of practical importance; but it is not less clear from both that he has but vague ideas of the laws of historical evidence, and that he is especially incompetent to deal with the history of the ancient world or with matters relating to the origin and growth of languages. His chapters on the existing effects of caste and on the present state of religion in India, on the capabilities of the country, and on the modes in which these capabilities may be best drawn out for the strengthening of British rule and the improvement of the revenue, are really valuable, and should be carefully read and considered; but the reader might be pardoned who should conclude from the opening sentences that it was a mere waste of time to go furth

with his readers.

The truth is that whenever Mr. Dutt deals with questions of language or of the history of times for which we have not the evidence of a contemporary historical literature he betrays inexactevidence of a contemporary instorical interactive he betrays inexactness of thought, and the necessary result is great inequality in his work. It is more than provoking to be told that, in determining the relations of tribes and nations, "a coincidence of words and sentences" in the dialects spoken by them is not a safe and trustworthy guide. A little consideration would surely have convinced Mr. Dutt that between words and sentences there is all the difference in the world. The former are more counters or labels which ence in the world. The former are mere counters or labels which any language may borrow from another, suiting their shape to its own needs; the latter must be put together grammatically, and the grammatical structure of speech answers exactly to the anato-mical structure of animals. If one dialect cannot be distinguished from or compared with another in the likeness or unlikeness of its forms which are absolutely dependent on law, then the attempt to determine the relations of vertebrates by the likeness or unlikeness of their skeletons must be also useless. It is of course easy to push too far conclusions which the evidence of language may seem to warrant; and among those which must be modified may be the theory which looks on the parent of the vast multitude of Aryan theory which looks on the parent of the vast multitude of Aryan dialects as the speech of a single Aryan community in its primeval home. It is possible, as Mr. Sayce has pointed out, that this primitive language may have been spoken by a race essentially different from that to which we belong, or spoken by more races than one. It is also possible that there may have been no one original dialect. Languages can be preserved from endless dialectical variations only when they are brought under the artificial conditions imposed by a written literature. But these and other points of detail, whatever may be their importance, have not, after the lapse of nearly a century, affected essentially the assertion of Sir William Jones that "no philologer could examine the Sanskrit, Greek, and Latin without believing them to have sprung from some common source." The results obtained by the methods recommended by him, and by the correspondents of the French Academy before him, have exceeded any expectations which the most sanguine him, and by the correspondents of the French Academy before him, have exceeded any expectations which the most surgaine could have dared to form at the beginning of the present century; and amongst these results is undoubtedly the position that there is, if we speak generally, an affinity of blood between the peoples and nations which have a common inheritance in the wide-spread Aryan dialects. The inferences drawn from this position must be is, it we speak generally, an aminity of blood between the peoples and nations which have a common inheritance in the wide-spread Aryan dialects. The inferences drawn from this position must be applied cautiously in individual cases; and it may be only very partially true that there is a common parentage for the Hindu and the Englishman. But it is simply preposterous to say, as Mr. Dutt plainly says, that "the idea is based on a fancied similitude between the Sanskrit, Persian, Scythian, Celtic, Hellenic, Gothic, and Slavonian languages." His own conclusions and speculations are not less rash. Both Persians and Hindus spoke of themselves as Aryans; but the latter, at least, have always inhabited the countries in which they are now found. Yet it seems that Persians and Hindus wished to have a common name because "they were encircled, and that "to this end they both took to themselves a name coined for the occasion, which from their continuity to each other they adopted in common." But the Persians and Hindus were akin neither in race nor in language; and we are not told how they manufactured their common title. It is all very puzzling and very strange; and it is not easy to discover the canons of Mr. Dutt's critical system. There is no affinity between Persians and Hindus, because the latter were "scholars of high culture and taste," while the former were "never anything beyond soldiers and politicians." The difference, we might suppose, could be accounted for, so far as it exists, on other grounds; but the argument, if it be worth anything, would prove that Spartans and Athenians could not both be Hellenes. To make the puzzlement greater, the Brahmans have never had any other than their present abodes; yet it seems that at some time or other they separated from the other Aryans and "went through their own special development on the banks of the Indus," by crossing which river they immigrated into the Punjab.

development on the banks of the Indus," by crossing which river they immigrated into the Punjab.

It is unnecessary, however, to cite further instances of inexactness and confusion in order to show that Mr. Dutt would do well to avoid questions of ethnology and language. In the history of religion in India he is much more at home, and has much to say for which he may justly challenge careful attention; but even here his could be marred by some unfortunate inconsistencies. In one place to avoid questions of ethnology and language. In the history of religion in India he is much more at home, and has much to say for which he may justly challenge careful attention; but even here his work is marred by some unfortunate inconsistencies. In one place we are told that the worship of the Vedic age never rose, "except in a very undistinguishable form, above the worship of the great objects by which they were surrounded"; and this is said in apparent agreement with the opinion of Professor H. H. Wilson, that the authors of the Hymns had probably no belief in a Creator or Ruler of the universe. In another passage we are told that there was no competition among the Vedic gods, and that as each was mentioned, there was "for the time at least only one Supreme God, which may be understood as implying an undercurrent of monotheism in the midst of mythology." Monotheism and unbelief in a Creator cannot well go together; and such loose writing impairs the authority of those parts of the book which deserve to be spoken of in terms of high praise. Two of the most useful chapters in the volumes treat of the growth of caste and of the present condition and effects of the institution in India. The origination of caste from conquest is, and may perhaps remain, a vexed question. Mr. Dutt thinks that the theory is not warranted by the Rig Veda or Menu. The myth that the four castes proceeded from different parts of the body of the Supreme Being seems to show that there were no essential differences of race between the several classes; and if the notion that easte has grown out of conquest be true, Mr. Dutt says it is true only so far as conquest affected the internal relations of the conquerors. In order to distinguish them from the barbarians, or dasyas, whom they brought under their yoke, the first thing to be done was, in his belief, to classify the victors "according to the duties which their conquests imposed on them, and the first three castes were thus called forth, being simply gradations in the body politic re saniars were all alike slaves, whom they all equally hated; and by way of raising up a barrier between themselves and their conquerors, "the injunctions of the Shastras came to be strengthened by stringent bylaws, and to be oppressively enforced." To Englishmen the characteristics of caste must be matters of curiosity rather than of real interest. They cannot be expected to care much about the identity or the distinction of caste or rank. In point of fact, caste and rank have nothing to do with each other. In the social scale the Barnasankar may be indefinitely higher than the Brahman; but the latter is endowed with privileges and receives an honour which the former can by no possibility attain to. The question of caste can in England attract attention only in so far as it affects the welfare of the people of India; and as interposing an obstacle in the way of their improvement generally, and more especially as checking or repressing all political growth, it becomes a matter of extreme importance. The difficulties involved in it are, in Mr. Dutt's opinion, far more serious than we in England are apt to believe. In its practical working caste is, as we might suppose, an almost intolerable despotism. The enforcement of its observances cannot be trusted to the members of each caste as individuals; and the result has been the growth of a class of inquisitors, who make their pecuniary profit out of the infringement of its rules. It is impossible for the Hindu to escape from the parámánika, who are perpetually "prying into the minutest privacies of life," under the pretence of seeing that nothing is amiss. "A son or a daughter," Mr. Dutt tells us, "cannot be given away in marriage, friends cannot be entertained, ceremonies cannot be performed, without the permission and co-operation of these social harpies, such co-operation having, of course, a price attached to it; and if a wife or daughter is suspected of frailty, or a son or brother accused of irreligion, the unfortunate family is always shorn to the quick, with

and while they are thus bearing a yoke which their rulers would never impose on them, the results are disastrous to themselves politically and socially as well as morally. Caste is multiplying their divisions indefinitely, and on this account it was "encouraged and fostered by the Mahometans." Mr. Dutt justly adds that "a hearty retired are represented by the Mahometans." and fostered by the Mahometans." Mr. Dutt justly adds that "a hearty national union under a people so constituted can never be hoped for; no necessity or general misfortune will yoke the Brahman and the Barnasankar side by side, in one common cause. If they were found banded together for a time during the Mutiny of 1857, it is certain that that confederation would never have outlived the passing hour." Of the institution and its effects he has no hesitation in saying that its mischievous restrictions have brought civilization to a standstill in the country, and that there is no hope of improgramment until these restrictions are removed. is no hope of improvement until these restrictions are removed; but in the expectation of any change, early or late, he puts no faith, while he ascribes the resistance to caste made by the party known as Young Bengal to motives so discreditable that any real reformation from such a quarter is not to be looked

The illegal oppression exercised through the institution of caste is exercised also, to an extent scarcely less burdensome, under cover of the Perpetual Settlement of Lord Cornwallis. The collectors deal with the zemindars only; the zemindars impose on the ryots payments of which the law knows nothing or which it expressly declares illegal. But, as in the matter of caste, the ryot pressly declares illegal. But, as in the matter of caste, the ryot practically dares not complain; and the result is not merely a large amount of misery amongst the cultivators of the soil, but a very serious loss to the revenues of India. This loss has been computed loosely at 10,000,000l. a year; it may perhaps be put at 7,000,000l, and can scarcely be estimated at a very much lower rate. Between the ryots and the officers of the Government there is no introduced the context, and in some cases the rate. Between the ryots and the officers of the Government there is no intercourse, and indeed no contact; and in some cases the number of illegal cesses found existing has been not less than ninety-seven. The reconsideration of an arrangement which has no just title to be regarded as a law of Medes and Persians may perhaps suggest measures that would speedily lessen and remove the disaffection now spreading amongst many classes of the people. On subjects of this nature Mr. Dutt's remarks are always judicious, and his arguments are urged with a force and clearness which entitle them to the serious attention of his readers. which entitle them to the serious attention of his readers.

MAHAFFY'S CLASSICAL GREEK LITERATURE.

MAHAFFY'S CLASSICAL GREEK LITERATURE.*

No one probably will be prepared to deny the truth of the statement contained in the first sentence of Mr. Mahaffy's preface, that "a history of Greek literature has become almost too great a task for any single man to accomplish adequately." To gain a thorough knowledge of the various Greek authors themselves, as well as of the vast mass of commentary and criticism which has gathered round them, is enough, and more than enough, to constitute the study of a lifetime. But beyond this special knowledge a wide acquaintance with general literature and a highly cultivated taste are necessary for the adequate treatment of the subject; and to these should be added a large share of common sense, a quality which is not best developed in the seclusion of the library. We may here be met by a retort akin to that with which Rasselas checked the poetic enthusiasm of Imlac; and no doubt the magnitude of the subject is enough to terrify any ordinary scholar, Rasselas checked the poetic enthusiasm of Imlac; and no doubt the magnitude of the subject is enough to terrify any ordinary scholar, and to turn his attention to monographs on individual writers on the one hand, or to the composition of a primer for beginners on the other. Mr. Mahaffy's history does not profess to be in any sense an exhaustive treatise. It is intended, we are told, for the use of "younger students," by whom are probably meant undergraduates reading for honours; and though a book which consists of about a thousand pages of closely printed and carefully condensed matter can scarcely be called a short one, it is at any rate very much less voluminous than such a work as Mure's, while it embodies in a convenient form the substance of what is known about classical Greek authors. It may be doubted whether the general plan of the work is such as best to convey to "younger students" a good general knowledge of the history of Greek literature. Too much is said about each writer, and too little about the development and progress of literature at large. The result is that the book is biographical rather than historical in character. It wants continuity, and does not sufficiently explain the mutual influence of the various authors.

is biographical rather than historical in character. It wants continuity, and does not sufficiently explain the mutual influence of the various authors. A work composed on this plan may be, and in the present case assuredly is, most valuable as a dictionary; but the fact that names occur in chronological instead of alphabetical order does not at once convert it into history.

Regarded as a contribution to our critical knowledge of the great Greek writers, and not as a means of educating youth, the book deserves very high praise. As a critic, Mr. Mahaffy is entitled to an important position among commentators on classical literature. Sound common sense and breadth of view are the leading characteristics of his style of criticism, and he revolts as much from the pedantry and dulness of one great school of modern critics as from the neglect of details and complacent optimism of the other. His remarks on the relations—or, rather, absence of relations—between English and German critics, and his statement of the merits and defects of each school may be read with advantage by, many scholars beside shose for whom they are more especially intended. While he allows the Germans all credit for

^{*} A History of Classical Greek Literature. By the Rev. J. P. Mahaffy, M.A. London: Longmans, Green, & Co. 1880.

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their labours in the field of Homeric research, he has little symtheir labours in the field of Homeric research, he has little sympathy with their general canons of criticism, and points out how fallacious is their favourite practice of making literary merit the ultimate test of the authenticity of any passage. The fact that widely different verdicts are often pronounced by various critics upon the same passage is of itself sufficient proof of the inadequacy of the test, and moreover, as Mr. Mahaffy suggests, the very excellence of a later lay may often be the cause of its being interpolated in an earlier composition. Mr. Mahaffy here lays much stress upon the national isolation in scholarship, and is of opinion that the contrast of attitude has been so strong as to blind each nation to the importance of what has been said by the other. He suggests as an alternative explanation that few scholars of either country are able fully to appreciate the force of an argument in the tongue of are able fully to appreciate the force of an argument in the tongue of the other. There may be some truth in both explanations, but probably English critics have been guided in the matter of the Homeric poems rather by sentimental considerations than by any other feelings. Holding as he does that ignorance or carelessness is the cause in each party of blindness to the arguments of the other, Mr. Mahafly is naturally more in sympathy with Grote than with any other critic of the Homeric poems, and he holds, in the main, Grote's intermediate theory about the Iliad. He strengthens his position by the authority of Professor Sayee, whose summary of the results of linguistic criticism on the text of Homer is printed as an appendix, and who arrives, on different grounds, at substantially the same conclusions as those of Mr. Mahaffy. While speaking of this branch of the subject we may mention that Mr. Mahaffy's opinion of German scholarship seems to grow lower as he proceeds. He are able fully to appreciate the force of an argument in the tongue of the other. There may be some truth in both explanations, but probnion of German scholarship seems to grow lower as he proceeds. He gradually imbibes all the British prejudices against which he protests in the earlier portion of the work, and he finally arrives at the conclusion that the most appropriate piece of work for a "leavned conclusion that the most appropriate piece of work for a "learned German" would be the re-editing of the fragments of Ctesias, with all the monumental evidence as to his trustworthiness appended. Mr. Mahafiy's own method of treating Greek literature, as compared with that of German scholars, reminds us forcibly of the familiar story of the way in which a German and an Englishman respectively executed the order given to them to describe a camel. The tively executed the order given to them to describe a camel. The Englishman, we are told, packed up his portmanteau and started off to study his subject in its native deserts; while the German remained quietly at home and evolved a camel out of his inner consciousness, much as the Italian painters would seem to have done in depicting the Adoration of the Magi. Mr. Mahaffy has travelled widely in Greece, Italy, and Sicily, and brings the knowledge thus acquired to bear upon his present task. His observations on the Greek theatre derive much force from his visits to the various rules extent, and his theories on the mechanical contrivarious ruins extant; and his theories on the mechanical contri-vances of the Greek stage, founded on an inspection of the remains, are worth more than whole volumes of à priori argument. No doubt he goes too far when, from the fact that he could distinctly hear every word uttered in a man's ordinary speaking voice across the amphitheatre at Syracuse, he draws the conclusion that the acoustic properties of these vast theatres were much better than would naturally be supposed; for, to say nothing of the buzzing sound which must at times have arisen from so large an audience, however attentive it might be, it is not necessary to be an actor or singer to know how sound is broken and deadened by the mere bodily presence of a number of people in a theatre. Indeed Mr. Mahaffy's arguments occasionally remind us of the ingenious show-

man who justified his peculiar pronunciation of the word pelican by the plea that he had "seen the animal."

The chapters on the Tragedians are perhaps the most interesting in the whole work. Mr. Mahaffy is never afraid of contradicting generally received opinions, and it is pleasing to meet with a critic who will venture to uphold the claims of Euripides to equality at least with Æschylus and Sophocles. The decision arrived at on the question must of course depend on the individual taste of each reader; but it is easy to understand that any modern student not thoroughly imbued with the Hellenic spirit would pronounce Euripides superior to Sophocles. Even such a Greek scholar and sympathizer as Mr. Mahaffy, while he pronounces Sophocles to be the better artist, ascribes to Euripides the greater genius. But this is not the place to discuss the question, which, in many of its aspects, bears a striking resemblance to the contest between the Classical and the Romantic drama in France

during the present century.

In his estimate of Pindar Mr. Mahaffy dissents more widely from the general verdict. He lays much emphasis on the fact that Pindar wrote for pay, and discovers with great, perhaps too great, ingenuity, that the splendour of the ode depends very much upon the price paid for it. Thus the superiority in grandeur of the Olympian odes is accounted for by the explanation that they were composed for great personages, and probably were splendidly rewarded. In the same way the rarity of odes addressed to Athenians is ascribed to the poverty of Athens at the time, while the wealth of the Æginetans and Sicilians accounts for the large place which they occupy in Pindar's poetry. As regards the literary merit of his odes, of course the elaborate character of his metrical system, in which the rhythm is entirely lost to modern ears, and the transient allusions which have long since become devoid of meaning, have inclined judicious critics to judge of Pindar rather by his reputation among his own countrymen than by the merits which they have been able to discover for themselves.

by the merits which they have been able to discover for themselves.

The second volume, which deals with prose literature, is, on the whole, very much less interesting than the first. We do not at all mean to imply that it is less valuable from an historical point

of view. On the contrary, Mr. Mahaffy presents a much more connected history of Greek prose than of Greek poetry; but his own interest seems to be centred in the poets, and moreover, except in one important case, his estimates of the various writers do not differ widely from those which are generally received. Hence there is less original criticism in this than in the other branch of the subject. Mr. Mahaffy's opinion of Xenophon, however, is at variance with that most commonly entertained, and diametrically opposed to the indiscriminate admiration of Grote, who sees in him the model of an Athenian gentleman, and a splendid specimen of the results of a democratic education. He is here described as being essentially a second-rate man in every respect, dominated all his life by any great man whom he met—Socrates, Cyrus, Agesilaus; "a mere Boswell, a photographer who copies petty details, but, being no true artist, is unable to catch the ideal side of the character, and reproduce it for all time." The Anabasis is set down as an elaborate piece of self-glorification, "where the author, without fear of contradiction, seeing that the main actors were now dead or scattered, could assume an importance quite beyond that warranted by the real facts." Mr. Mahaffy even goes so far as to suzgest that the publication of the work may have been delayed by Xenophon through his fear of being contradicted by the surviving leaders had he put his own prowess so strongly forward while they were at hand to correct him. Surely, in the absence of positive evidence on the matter, such a suggestion as this comes under the same head as those unjust insinuations of which Mr. Mahaffy complaius in Xenophon's treat-

In this, however, as in other cases where he differs from the generally received opinions on any branch of his subject, Mr. Mahaffy shows no undue desire to fetter the judgment of his readers. He states with the utmost candour the points on which other critics are at variance with him, and gives references to the authors by whom the question is best discussed. It is not easy to overrate the value of Mr. Mahaffy's work regarded as a book of reference. He gives a list of the chief MSS. of each author and an estimate of their relative value. He notices the most important editions and translations, and, in the case of the poets, gives some account of the various modern literature enables him to relieve the dulness which is at times unavoidable in a work of this character by happy illustrations and apt comparisons, though his taste for parallels sometimes leads him into extravagance—as, for instance, when he compares the schools of Isocrates and Plato respectively to Oxford and Cambridge, a resemblance which can, we think, exist only in the fancy of its discoverer. The analogy suggested between the parabasis of the old comedy and the topical song of modern burlesque is very happy in its completeness, though it is too obvious to be altogether new; and there is some truth in the parallel drawn between the Satyric drama and Christmas pantomime. The position of the Satyric play in a tetralogy might, however, have been expressed in English without the use of so barbarous a word as "afterlude." On one occasion Mr. Mahaffy is betrayed by a too sweeping generalization into a statement ludicrously suggestive of his nationality. In speaking of the strong influence exercised by the drama upon literature at large, he says that "even the legal oratory of the day assumed the dramatic tone, and the orator composed his attack or defence in the character of the client who spoke it." Seeing that the plaintiff or defendant uttered in person the speech written for him, it is difficult to perceive in what other character the orator coul

SOLDIERS OF THE VICTORIAN AGE.

"THE reign of Queen Victoria," Mr. Low observes in his preface, "will be known in our history as perhaps the most remarkable in British annals. It is pre-eminently so as regards our men of science; and scarcely in a less degree is the Victorian age famous for its philosophers, painters, men of letters, and orators. As regards our sailors, it is only because our naval supremacy is unquestioned, and hostile fleets in time of war avoid an encounter with ours on the seas, that no heroes, like the mighty seamen of the past, have immortalized themselves." No doubt, if there has been no Trafalgar in these latter days, that is not the fault of the sailors of the pre-eminent Victorian age, but of the hostile nations, especially the Zulus and the Afghans, who avoid encounter with us on the sea. Mr. Low has

Soldiers of the Victorian Age. By Charles Rathbone Low, I.N. 2 vols.
 Chapman & Hall, Limited. 1880.

omitted to mention the most pre-eminent feature about the Victorian age—that it has come after every other age up to the present time. But not only is this a pre-eminent age; "without undue glorification we may express a doubt whether any other European nation could, with our system of voluntary enlistment, and the paucity of our land forces, have effected such a marvellous series of conquests." Mr. Low might have added a doubt whether any other nation, with our Horse Guards, would have done so well, and it is a fair question also whether other nations would get on as well as we do with our London fog.

doubt whether any other hands, with our Horse duards, would have done so well, and it is a fair question also whether other nations would get on as well as we do with our London fog.

From these extracts it will be seen that Mr. Low's sense of historical perspective is not very keen, but it is only fair to add that the book is much better than the preface. It consists of a series of short biographical notices of different British officers, some of which have been written for the military magazines, but most of which now appear for the first time. They have been carefully prepared, and appear very correct as to facts, although Mr. Low has not always had access to the best information, and the criticism is sometimes not quite so pertinent or valuable as the statements of events. Indeed we know of no other book or books which would furnish so much information about a number of officers, of varying distinction certainly, but about whom the public, and especially military readers, are likely to feel interest. But, as we have said, the work is more valuable as a repertory of facts than for the critical power displayed. Thus, in the memoir of Lord Chelmsford we are told that "Captain Thesiger was not so fortunate as to participate in the battles of the Alma and Lalcenage and the content of the Crimera until was not so fortunate as to participate in the battles of the Alma and Inkerman, and did not arrive in the Crimea until . . . the siege . . . was approaching to a conclusion. For his services he received the Crimean medal and clasps for Sebastopol, the Turkish and Sardinian medals, and the fifth class of the Medjidie." Posshibly Mr. Low may intend irony here, for the granting of these Turkish and Sardinian decorations wholesale to our army was a Turkish and Sardman decorations wholesare to our army was a scandalous thing. But, if so, the sarcasm is concealed. Again, "On arriving at Bombay he joined the 95th Regiment in the field, but was only in time to be present at a small affair. . . . On the termination of hostilities he received the brevet of Colonel." In termination of hostilities he received the brevet of Colonel." In the Abyssinian war Colonel Thesiger served as chief of the staff to Sir Robert Napier, and throughout "was the alter ego of the Commander-in-Chief. Where Sir Robert Napier was not, there his chief of the staff was sure to be present as his representative. And though among his generals of division and brigadiers were such men as Stavely, Merewether, and Field, yet the subject of this memoir was regarded as the 'right hand man of his chief.'" So one might say that, although such men as the senior major and the import major were recent with a brigadiers were such men as Stavely, Merewether, and Field, yet the subject of this memoir was regarded as the 'right hand man of his chief.'" So one might say that, although such men as the senior major and the junior major were present with a regiment, the adjutant-was regarded as the right hand man of the colonel. As Adjutant-General in India, "firm but conciliatory, courteous and kind, but dignified, he was beloved by all who came in contact with him, while he earned their respect by the exhibition of such soldierly qualities as courage and calmness in the presence of danger." The description of the late Adjutant-General in India is not at all too highly coloured. But what room, in the performance of the peaceful duties of the Adjutant-General's office at Simla or Calcutta, was afforded for the exhibition of courage and calmness, and how the danger became present, is not explained. Of the battle of Ulundi Mr. Low says:—"But the enemy could not long face the terrible fire poured into them at a range of sixty yards; and, after a display of heroism that would not have discredited veteran disciplined infantry, about 9.30 they wavered"; a ludicrously inappropriate way of describing the desperate bravery of the Zulus. It would be more just to say, whenever any disciplined infantry, whether English or other, behaves exceptionally well, that their conduct would not have disgraced a Zulu. To return, however, to the subject of this memoir, we are somewhat surprised to find Mr. Low presently saying that, "in thus sacrificing the fruits of a victory won by the expenditure of so much time and money, Lord Chelmsford, we think, has forfeited all claim to the title of a great soldier; and it is hard to see how his panegyrists can defend an act displaying such timidity and want of judgment." There is something strangely absurd in this sentence, coming as it does from a writer who has constituted himself Lord Chelmsford's panegyrist-in-chief, and then, having "cracked him up" throughout the memoir in language appropriate to burg, the capital of Natal, where his lordship received an ovation, the people carrying him on their shoulders out of his postchaise to his hotel, where the mayor read him an address of congratulation, to which Lord Chelmsford replied, expressing his thanks to the colonists for their sympathy and confidence throughout the trying time through which he had passed." A good many other people also had passed through a trying time; but the biographer has unaccountably forgotten, while recording this interesting anecdote, to tell us what his lordship had for breakfast on the occasion. Again, "though public opinion in the press, in society, and in the army, was much divided as to the generalship displayed by Lord Chelmsford, every one was agreed that he was actuated by a determination to do his best without regard to personal convenience, and that he never spared himself in the public service." We have never before heard of this division of opinion, and it is curious praise of a man to say that he was not one who did not do his best.

The book, however, is a perfect magazine of interesting facts available for the future compiler of military history; and it is not surprising that in a big work of this sort about a great many different people and events, the facts, or Mr. Low's interpretation of them, should not always be accurate. Thus, in reference to Outram's reinstatement at Baroda, after his battle with the Bombay Government on the famous bribery case, Mr. Low says that the Court's Directors asked the Bombay Government to reinstate him. It was, however, to the supreme Government of India that the Court's appeal was made, and it was Lord Dalhousie, and not the Bombay Government, who sent Outram back in triumph to Baroda. When Outram was transferred from Aden to Lucknow, Mr. Low says it was done by Lord Dalhousie, "who knew Outram's value, and had made him one of his honorary aide-de-camps"; which is as if the Queen were to reward Lord Beaconsfield or Mr. Gladstone by making him a C.B. Speaking of the action of Mohumra, in the Persian war, Mr. Low quotes with approval Havelock's remark that the "works were formidable; but in 3½ hours they were so battered by our war-ships that the enemy abandoned them in haste, suffering great loss." They were not, therefore, really formidable, or they would not have been so easily battered by a few old sloops of the Indian navy of obsolete pattern and armament. With reference to Outram's appointment to the force which relieved Lucknow, Mr. Low terms it "a supersession of Havelock, his former friend and comrade," adding "that it was not in intended that Havelock, after gaining nine victories, should be actually superseded." But it was certainly intended that Outram should take charge of the united troops collecting at Cawnpore. Havelock—some of whose nine victories, by the way, were mere bloodless demonstrations—arriving first on the scene, took over command in turn from Havelock when he got to the front. It is a misnomer to talk of supersession in such cases. As well say that Sir Colin Campbell superseded

The memoir of Lord Napier strikes us as one of the best, because Mr. Low appreciates properly the qualities which have brought about that distinguished officer's success—the combination of patient care and forethought in arranging plans of an operation in the first instance, with brilliant dash in execution; but even here the commentary is not always felicitous. For example:—"Meanwhile Napier's promotion had been going on steadily, and with a share of good fortune. He was gazetted first lieutenant on the 28th September, 1827, and his commission as captain bore date 25th January, 1841." Steady the promotion certainly was, if slowness and steadiness are synonymous; but what good fortune there is in not getting your company until after fifteen years' service is not apparent. Of the first day of Ferozshuhr, Mr. Low says that "the British infantry flung itself with heroic devotion against the Sikh entrenchments." A part of the British infantry unfortunately did nothing of the sort; hence the indecisive result of that day. And when it is added that "Captain Napier was honourably mentioned in despatches, and received a medal with two clasps, and the brevet rank of Major for his services," a person ignorant of Mr. Low's way of dragging in the irrelevant might suppose that medals and clasps were given with discrimination, and that a brevet majority was a very great distinction. He is evidently unaware of the very remarkable part played by the subject of his memoir on that critical day, and the inadequate recognition it obtained. However, with all its faults, this is still a very useful and, in many parts, interesting book.

PAYNE'S LECTURES ON EDUCATION.

THE late Mr. Payne gave the best part of his life to enforcing, by precept and example, a truth which ought to be elementary; which in the principal countries of the Continent is recognized as elementary, and acted on with excellent results; but which in England has only just attained recognition, and is still for the most part ignored in our chief seats of learning. This truth is that there is such a thing as an art of education. It has not been neglected for want of being before the world. Socrates, who discovered that there was a science of politics, did not overlook the science and art which are concerned with making good citizens. Plato and Aristotle, each in his own way, endeavoured to work out the pregnant hints of Socrates. In our own land Milton testified his belief that the training of human beings is a weighty and difficult matter, "not a bow for every man to shoot in that counts himself a teacher." Ascham before him, Locke after him, in our own day Mr. Herbert Spencer, many others at divers times and in divers ways, have insisted on the importance of the education of children being conducted, not haphazard, but in a systematic and intelligent manner. Yet in the vast majority of our schools, and, it is to be feared, in the vast majority of our shones, the development of human faculties and formation of human character has to this day been treated as an undertaking so trifling or so easy as to require for its successful performance the application of very little intelligence and no method whatever. Boys and girls are not puppets that will dance as you pull the strings, but men and women in little; yet their parents and pastors and

Lectures on the Science and Art of Education: with other Lectures and Essays. By the late Joseph Payne. Edited by his Son, Joseph Frank Payne, M.D. With an Introduction by the Rev. R. H. Quick. London: Longmans & Co. 1880.

masters go on acting as if they thought with Guildenstern that man's easier to play on than a pipe. Honourable exceptions there have always been; and now, thanks to the labours of Joseph Payne and others like him, it seems within the reach of reasonable hope that these examples may spread and become the rule. And then, if we look back to the work of those who cleared the ground and find in it some touch of over-heated denunciation, or over-weening promise, or dogged iteration of things that now appear obvious, let us remember that they bore the burden and heat of the day in evil times, and that without enthusiasm and insistence their work would not have come to the harvest at all. A man who is afraid of repeating himself, or of seeming disagreeable to respectable persons and institutions, will never make much impression on the inertia of established routine. Mr. Payne was completely free from both these fears, and his work took root. This volume is made up of a number of occasional discourses and papers, which he presumably would have disposed otherwise if he had arranged them for publication himself. As they stand they form a series of landmarks in an active life, and show how constantly he was occupied in working out and enforcing the

If he had arranged them for publication himself. As they stand they form a series of landmarks in an active life, and show how constantly he was occupied in working out and enforcing the application of a few leading ideas.

The first and great axiom of the science of education, as conceived by Mr. Payne, is a paradox; he learnt it, as he himself tells us, from Jacotot, but realized it with a strength and vitality that made it his own. It is that a teacher's business is not to teach his pupil, but to lead him to teach himself. "Learning is self-teaching... the mental act by which knowledge is acquired is the pupil's, not the teacher's." The mere driving of words and facts into a pupil's memory "is no more instruction than heaping bricks and stones together is building a house." The true instructor commands the materials of knowledge as Amphion did those of building; he does not lay his own hands on them, but under his hidding they "move together to the place where they are wanted, and grow into the form of a harmonious fabric." Hence another paradox, that the teacher's highest success is to make himself useless to his pupils. It is worth observing that, just as we noted of the general conception of a science of education, this discovery is ancient in conception though recent in application to practice. and grow into the form of a harmonious fabric." Hence another paradox, that the teacher's highest success is to make himself useless to his pupils. It is worth observing that, just as we noted of the general conception of a science of education, this discovery is ancient in conception though recent in application to practice. The famous questioning method of Socrates had no other idea than this at its root; he went on the principle that only that knowledge is vital which a man arrives at by his own thought. And by his own description of the process he showed that he clearly apprehended the true theory of it. No modern could be more distinct on the point that real teaching is not a bare putting in from without, but a drawing out and developing from within. Unfortunately, the right way of doing most things is harder, till one has learnt it, than the wrong one; and the construction of knowledge by drawing out thought from within is an affair of skill and patience. For it is yet another paradox, but true, that in education, as in government, the hardest thing of all is to know when not to meddle. It is much easier to teach, or seem to teach, children by stuffing them with words to be reproduced to order than to make them teach themselves and acquire a grasp of things; and the temptations of the easier way have prevailed, with results which may be read in various public documents. One question, however, is apt to rise in the mind which deserves a little attention, though we do not find it noticed in this book. Do not the reformers prove too much? If the common method or want of method is as bad as they say, how is it that any tolerable results are produced? A certain number of pupils, including the reformers themselves, have under the old system come out good scholars, accomplished men, and capable of independent thinking. Can the tree be so faulty if its best fruit is so good? On general grounds it may be answered that this is the old fallacy of post hoc, proper hoe; but downwhat his produced in the produced in the

them have not a mind above routine, and some spark of the Socratic faculty of quickening and opening a learner's thought. The first-class men, on the whole, are not those who need pity; perhaps that is why they are mostly rather indifferent to the evil. It is the intellects of the middling and duller sort that get starved and stunted by unintelligent school-work. This is a thing calling for no demonstration; it is writ large in the whole temper and fashion of the British middle classea, And, indeed, in our great schools and universities the case is likely enough to happen that a young man of no less than average wits, finding no strong liking in himself to the appointed studies, nor encouragement from those who should keep him to them, betakes himself to such things as he does find that he can more effectually and pleasantly, in our author's phrase, teach himself—which are cricket, rowing, and the whole genus of athletics. Just now there is a great cry against athletics, as if they were the cause of idleness, and the neglect of other things were not rather a symptom of deeper shortcomings; whereas parents and tutors should for the present be only too thankful that, for want of anything better, the activity and interest of athletics keeps young men from things much worse.

activity and interest of athletics keeps young men from things much worse.

But we must return to Mr. Payne's own application of his idea. He exemplifies the right and the wrong way of teaching by a lesson in mechanics. The routine teacher begins by giving out a definition of a machine in abstract terms, and is surprised that his class cannot understand it. The teacher who knows his art begins with a working model of some simple machine, tells the class at first merely what it is for, lets them see it at work and work it for themselves, makes them note the results by weight and measure, introduces technical terms only as and when the facts themselves are known by direct experience, shows the effect of varying the conditions, and finally dismisses the children with an invitation to devise improvements on the machine if they can, and bring the results next time. One would say offhand that not much invention is to be got out of an average school-class; but Mr. Payne assures us, as a fact within his own experience, that there is a good deal, if the teacher will only look for it and encourage it. All the common methods of teaching are directed to make the learner merely repeat what he has been told; the method advocated by Mr. Payne aims at making him repeat as little as possible, but acquire ideas and learn to put his own activity into the use of them. In the technical language of Cambridge examinations, Mr. Payne's ideal is to reduce book-work, as compared with riders and problems, as nearly as may be to a vanishing quantity. The method can be carried out even in the first elements. Jacotot, and Mr. Payne after him, would have reading taught quite otherwise than by spelling-books. Learning the letters separately is now pretty well exploded; but Jacotot and Payne go much beyond even the improved syllabic method of modern reading-books. They plunge at once into a real sentence, teach the individual letters, come gradually as the sentence is mastered. Any reader who is acquainted with Mr. Prendergast's "Masterly Seri supreme in the codes and instructions of the Education Department. Great interest attaches, therefore, to what Mr. Payne had to tell of his success in this undertaking. At the end of a lecture on "The Science and Art of Education" given at the College of Preceptors in 1874, we find some striking extracts from the statements of teachers who had followed Mr. Payne's lectures. One said: "Before attending these lectures, my aim was that my pupils should gain a certain amount of knowledge. I now see how far more important is the exercise of these powers by which knowledge is gained. I am therefore trying to make I now see how far more important is the exercise of these powers by which knowledge is gained. I am therefore trying to make them think for themselves . . I now try to adopt my plan to the pupil, not the pupil to my plan." Another said: "What you have done for me, I endeavour to do for my pupils. I make them correct their own errors; indeed, do their own work as much as possible. Since you have been teaching me, my pupils have progressed in mental development as they have never done in all the years I have been teaching." Obviously these teachers had learnt to some purpose, and Mr. Payne might well say that his labours had not ended in mere talk.

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That pupil had seized the root of the matter who learnt from Mr. Payne that not "a certain amount of knowledge," but "the exercise of those powers by which knowledge is gained," is the really important thing in education. In the light of this principle Mr. Payne viewed the controversy between science and classics. What he says about science in his lecture on "The Curriculum of Modern Education" may perhaps be summed up thus:—"Teach science by all means—that is, train the mind to scientific method. But mere verbal teaching of scientific facts out of books is as worthless as any other merely verbal teaching; and remember that you cannot teach all the sciences. If you ask specialists which science is to be taught, each will name his own, and your programme will be beyond human powers." It appears that Mr. Payne would practically have advised the introduction into school teaching of

lementary physics, and at a later stage chemistry or physiology. elementary physics, and at a later stage enemistry or physiclogy. We are disposed to think that he somewhat underrates the importance of clear physical ideas, seeing that nine-tenths of the nonsense that flourishes in the world trades chiefly on the absence of them; and, for the sake of its immediate bearing on health and the conduct of life, we should decidedly put physiology before chemistry, except what little chemistry the elements of physiology involve. These, however, are trilling differences as compared with the main question of method. As to classics and literature, Mr. Payne points out, as Dr. Johnson had done, and also Locke before him, that one of the most essential kinds of knowledge is the knowledge of human nature; and that this is what we find in the best books. Then the eminence and necessity of Latin as an instrument of the higher education consist, apart from the merits of Latin literature in itself, in Latin being the common meeting-ground of the civilized world. It is the key, not to one city or country, but, as Mr. Payne truly says, to the commonwealth of letters. Moreover, the scholar may now say to the man of science that the study of language is itself a science. Modern philology has informed it with new life and made it progressive. On the whole, Mr. Payne's judgment on the ow say to the hand of science that the study of language is seeience. Modern philology has informed it with new life and nade it progressive. On the whole, Mr. Payne's judgment on the laims of language and natural science is a remarkably fair and

lucid one.

Space has not allowed us to give any specimens of Mr. Payne's writing; it is always good and apt, but we fancy that in the pieces now collected it was a little under restraint. Anyhow, there is nothing in this volume that will compare for freedom and vigour with the article on Eton published in the British Quarterly Review twelve years ago, which Etonians may now read with tolerable equanimity, so many things being amended or in a speedy way so to be. It is a strong and brilliant piece of caustic criticism, and at the time was open to no reply but Mr. Pepys's—"A devilish saying, but true."

THE UNDISCOVERED COUNTRY.

THE UNDISCOVERED COUNTRY.*

In Milishmen do not very often read the critical part of American reviews, and it is perhaps fortunate for Mr Howells's reputation that they do not. It is not unusual to find him spoken of in these reviews as a sort of compound of Thackeray and Landor; a novelist possessed of the most remarkable insight into character and power of drawing it, and, as they would themselves say, a stylist of unsurpassed originality and force. We have seen it stated in so many words that Mr. Howells yields to moone living among those who write the English language. This silly provincialism might, if it anticipated an actual acquaintance with the author's works, not a little injure their chances. Fortunately, however, some of Mr. Howells's work, notably A Foregone Conclusion, came over to England early enough to get the start of his injudicious trumpeters. If anybody claims for him the position of the best novelist of America, and of a writer who, with the heavy drawbacks of his dialect, still deserves a good place among his English contemporaries, the claim certainly cannot be disputed. Mr. Howells is of the class of American writers whom Mr. Henry James also represents. But he has perhaps the advantage of Mr. James in a less dogged clinging to European themes, in a greater range and freshness of subject, and in the absence of all but a very faint flavour of mannerism. On the whole, he is a very pleasant author to read, though even in his case we wish we could be indulged with an English edition of his works relieved of the ugliness of orthography and of phrase which disfigure the book before us. "Traveled" and "quarreled," "honor" and "labor," "forever" in one word, and "quarreled," "honor" and "labor," "forever" in one word, and "quarreled," "honor" and be polling reformers reserve for him in the good time coming; and when he has accustomed himself to these, "did not have "comes to upset his restored equanimity. This last is perhaps at once the agliest and the most inexplicable of Americanisms. For we

and the most inexplicable of Americanisms. For we have not observed that even Americans asy "did not be."

However, The Undiscovered Country is a good enough book to enable the reader to go on reading it, despite the amari aliquid which is but too frequently presented to him. A good many novels, English as well as American, have dealt with Spiritualism, and it cannot be said that many have dealt with it successfully. Mr. Howells has taken a course which, if not exactly novel, does not lack a certain amount of freshness. He has made his Spiritualist here a singular compound of perfect singuity and unblushing hero a singular compound of perfect sincerity and unblushing quackery. Dr. Boynton is a fervent believer in Spiritualism—or, rather, an ardent hankerer after fervent belief in it. But, not being exactly an idiot, he has observed the quackery which generally prevails on the subject, and has drawn the bright conclusion that prevails on the subject, and has drawn the bright conclusion that a certain amount of slipperiness is inseparable from the Mediumistic temperament. He accordingly mixes himself up with some very doubtful people, whom he allows, in his own words, to "assist the Spirits." The Spirits are of course assisted to their hearts' content, Spirita." The Spirits are of course assisted to their hearts' content, and when Dr. Boynton finds out how far the assistance has gone he is in a paroxysm of rage, grief, and despair, being indeed, as his confederate justly calls him, "a new sort of fool." He is always going through these alternations of eager belief in having found the clue, and of frantic disappointment when it fails him. Unluckily he himself is not the only person who suffers from his folly. He has a daughter, a beautiful girl, of the name of Egeria, with

light hair of a "plastic massiveness." It should be observed that Mr. Howells does not often fall into the jargon which a certain class of American writers affect, but every now and then he is caught. "Plastic massiveness" is to us a vile phrase. Why not massive plasticity or mastic —? but it is Mr. Howells's fault that we are tempted to be flippant. Egeria Boynton is an unhappy young woman, not very brilliant, who is passionately fond of her father, and deeply disgusted at the charlatanism which she is forced into partaking; but who nevertheless, owing to filial affection and a nervous temperament, allows herself to be mesmerized and materialized or immaterialized—we really cannot undertake to use the jargon correctly—and thus to bamboozle others, to ruin her own health, and to confirm her father in his self-deluding folly. The humbug is somewhat brutally exposed in Boston by a certain Edward Ford, who is in a way the hero of the book. This Ford exhibits curiously the odd tendency which certain American novelists have to show off with a sort of pride the most disagreeable types of their countrymen. Ford reminds the reader to some extent of Newman in Mr. James's American, but he is much more detestable. His conversation may be said to be chiefly distinguished by a kind of surly brutality which his admiring companions at boarding-houses and elsewhere take for genius, and which he himself seems to think echt-Amerikanisch, and a fine contrast to the habits and behaviour of those of his countrymen who are always going to Europe and talking of Europe. Wishing to expose the Spiritualists, he grasps the medium's hand—it happens to be Egeria's, and he is penitent enough, but, as Dr. Boynton points out to him, it must in any case have been a woman's, the other confederate being a certain Mrs. Le Roy—so roughly that a ring is cut into the bone, and the unhappy girl faints with the agony. It is not to be supposed that Mr. Howells exactly sets up this brute for admiration, but he has the beau rôle almost all through the st exactly sets up this brute for admiration, but he has the beau rôle almost all through the story, he is decorated with the novelist's highest mark of favour, the hand of the beautiful young woman, and, generally speaking, he has sheep and not goat written against him by his creator. Mr. Howells may very justly say that he does not write for English readers and is not responsible for any bad effects he may produce on them. But he really does produce very bad effects. The Pharisaic feeling with which every English reader will thank the goodness and the grace which have prevented his own country from producing, except as monsters and abnormalities, such creatures as this Ford, and which have provided in his own country other creatures who would probably kick them if they did exist and behaved according to pattern—this Pharisaic feeling, we say, is obviously improper and unhealthy, and a novelist who produces it is responsible for his acts.

and unhealthy, and a novelist who produces it is responsible for his acts.

A curious part of the book, not hitherto noticed, is that which represents the Boyntons' residence in a Shaker village. Mr. Howells evidently has a kindness for these curious people, and he has represented their colony at Vardley in very attractive colours. The introduction to it of the Spiritualist and his daughter is preceded by a chapter or two which show the very great narrative power which the author when he is at his best, possesses. Disgusted by the Boston exposure, Boynton has determined to quit the town and go to his friends—that vague term meaning in the present instance the father of his dead wife, who is the only connexion he has, and with whom he has quarrelled. Sufficient money for the journey is furnished by a sympathizing acquaintance, and a start is made. But the half-insane Boynton goes wool-gathering at a junction after some Shakers whom he has overheard talking about Spiritualism, and at the last moment hurries his daughter into the wrong train, their money and luggage having been previously put into the right one. Thus at nightfall they are turned out moneyless at a country station. A village shopkeeper refuses to lend any money on the ring which is the only valuable they possess, and the American horror of tramps (vividly illustrated, by the way, in this book, and instructive to admirers of the Republic) refuses them shelter everywhere. They hear of a Shaker village, where general hospitality is given, some miles off, and start to walk to it. But Egeria has been completely knocked up by excitement and misery of all kinds; bad weather comes on, and they are only too glad to find a wayside schoolhouse which has been left unlocked and with a fire in it. Next morning the "school maram" appears, and is characters, and where they are taken for prison-breakers and the police set upon them. At last (the girl in a fever and the father in not more than his usual state of lightheadedness) they reach the Shaker colony and thin A curious part of the book, not hitherto noticed, is that which

The Undiscovered Country. By W. D. Howells. London: Sampson Low & Co. 1880.

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are almost duplicates of the older Quakers after the first fanaticism of Fox's day had settled down, and before they had taken to exclusive money-getting and sectarian politics. Nor are the odd religious observances which Mr. Howells describes much more out of the way than the proceedings of a Quaker meeting in

old days.

Shakerism and Spiritualism have, it is said, a certain community Shakerism and Spiritualism have, it is said, a certain community of origin, and hence Boynton's anxiety for communion with the colony at Vardley. The association has a tragical end. He endeavours, when Egeria has recovered, to produce spiritualistic, or rather at first mesmeric, effects with her aid before the Shakers in meeting. But the girl's restoration to health has strengthened at once her nervous system and her moral fibre, and she either refuses or is unable to make herself the instrument of his will as of old. Thence a catastrophe. It is to be observed, however, that the beginning and end of the book are scarcely equal in point of interest or of merit to the middle. The description of a séance in the early chapters is good, but not very good. The end wanders off into theological discussions, and the story comes slowly and a little tamely to its foregone conclusion. The book will make devout Spiritualists very angry; it is not wholly orthodox in tone, so that little tamely to its foregone conclusion. The book will make devout Spiritualists very angry; it is not wholly orthodox in tone, so that it will not conciliate those who oppose Spiritualism from the theological side; and it is at the same time far from being a contribution to the purely scientific treatment of the question. Of course these facts have nothing to do with its goodness as a novel; yet Mr. Howells has not entirely saved it from the appearance of being a novel with a purpose—that is to say, a bastard work of art. The Undiscovered Country is by no means its author's best book; but it contains in the journey already described a fragment of his best work, and is worth reading if only for this.

DEL MAR'S HISTORY OF THE PRECIOUS METALS.

As a member of the United States Monetary Commission of 1876, it fell to the part of Mr. Alexander Del Mar to prepare certain reports and minutes relating to the California and Nevada mines, collating with them returns from American Ministers in foreign countries, and from other sources bearing upon the production of the precious metals. In the course of this labour many matters both of evidence and reasoning came within his reach, which the limits and the scope of the Commission did not allow him to embody in his official reports. Impressed with their importance, he determined to verify and extend the information thus acquired by means of a visit to California, where he has since resided. With these results he was induced to combine a general history of the precious metals, judging it of great advantage to write in a mining country within sight of the mines, and in the midst of a mining community. The practical gain thus insured he found means to supplement by the aid of such works of a general kind as the libraries of the Pacific Coast might supply, in the absence of books of a more technical character. The references with which his work abounds, as well as the list of authorities prefixed to it—among which, however, we miss with surprise the surpose of Mr. George and Sir Lehn Lubbook, wheel he has shed prefixed to it—among which, however, we miss with surprise the names of Mr. Goschen and Sir John Lubbock—show that he has had no lack of material for the execution of his design. Whilst freely acknowledging his debt to the excellent work of Mr. William Jacob, knowledging his debt to the excellent work of Mr. William Jacob, hitherto the chief if not sole source of information upon the history of the precious metals, he justly finds in the important events which have taken place in the meantime—the discovery of the great Californian and Australian placers, the opening of the highly productive mines of Nevada, and the extension of the European money system to Japan and other countries — a sufficient apology for the attempt to cover once more the same ground.

Mr. Jacob's history, moreover, failed to mark the significant agency of conquest and slavery in the production of gold and silver, and consequently yielded no data for computing the effects of mining upon a strictly commercial basis, which only began with silver, and consequently yielded no data for computing the effects of mining upon a strictly commercial basis, which only began with the era of free mining in 1849. It contained no sound calculation of the world's stock of precious metals in ancient and mediaval times, whereas the purchasing power of all future yields must be largely affected by the existing accumulation of stock acquired by the original owners, by conquest or slavery, with little or no cost. It omitted all mention of the very considerable movement from Japan to Europe during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, and failed to rate the importance of nearly two hundred millions of gold from the Brazilian placers. It gave no connected history—indeed but little mention—of the ratio of value between gold and silver, and omitted all reference to the devastation of the history—indeed but little mention—of the ratio of value between gold and silver, and omitted all reference to the devastation of the earth and other social ills entailed upon mining countries by the

search for those much-prized metals.

The list of these deticiencies in the work of his predecessor gives a very fair clue to the contents and scope of Mr. Del Mar's undertaking. After a rapid but fairly exhaustive sketch of the early use of gold and silver, the chief sources of these metals, their introduction as coined money, and their application to the arts, he points to the influence of this universal thirst upon the polihe points to the influence of this universal thirst upon the pointical fortunes of the world, with the evil concomitants of conquest and slavery. Owing to these disturbing forces there is, he argues, from the first no possibility of reducing the value of these acquisitions to a basis of strict cost. The same vices follow the fresh development of the search for gold from the period of the opening-

* A History of the Precious Metals, from the Earliest Times to the Present. By Alexander Del Mar, M.E., formerly Director of the Bureau of statistics of the United States, &c. London: Bell & Sons. 1880.

up of the New World, which our author traces with great fulness of detail and much breadth of view. The savageries of Cortes, Pizarro, Balboa, or Ayora, emulated at no great distance by adventurers of British blood, hardly needed re-telling, save for the statistics they incidentally afford in illustration of the wealth accumulated, the tracts of land brought under mining operations, and the coronic arrelless are reported to the recognition of the wealth accumulated, the tracts of land brought under mining operations,

accumulated, the tracts of land brought under mining operations, and the economic as well as moral considerations proper to the action of conquest and slavery.

In his chapter on the world's stock of the precious metals, our author shows the most conspicuous advance beyond the work of his predecessor, both in the larger mass of facts he has brought under view, and the more scientific handling of them. Jacob's estimate of the amount of bullion under the Roman Empire was vitiated as well by defective notions of the Roman method of notation, as by misconstruction of the language of the classic historians. If we are to believe Suetonius to have stated the amount of bullion then in circulation as equivalent (in senterces) historians. If we are to believe Suetonius to have stated the amount of bullion then in circulation as equivalent (in sesterces) to 322,916,000l., we arrive at a rate of gold or silver currency as high as six pounds sterling per head of population, taking Merivale's calculation of 60,000,000 souls for all Europe at this period. Even after the opening of Potosi, Europe, urges Mr. Del Mar, never showed a rate half as high as this. In setting down the existing stock at the period of the discovery of America at 34,000,000l, or so, he at the same time considers Mr. Jacob to be fairly near the mark. He only demuse to that writer's use of a gradual

never showed a rate half as high as this. In setting down the existing stock at the period of the discovery of America at 34,000,000. Or so, he at the same time considers Mr. Jacob to be fairly near the mark. He only demurs to that writer's view of a gradual decline from a theoretical quantity so preposterous.

The minute and elaborate tables drawn up for the work before us from the most trustworthy sources trace the steadily progressive growth of the wealth of Europe from 1488 A.D. onwards, culminating at the present time with 650,000,000. in coin or 11. 12s. a head. A strange falling off between the years 1700 and 1776 is explained by the temporary decline in the supply of bullion, and the drain upon the currency of Europe, a similar relapse having been admitted by Humboldt, Jacob, Macculloch, Tooke, and other writers between the years 1808 and 1839. Naturally enough the most marked rise is seen in the period immediately following the discovery of America, the stock of coin per capita, which was 16s. in the year 1492, having risen by 1636 to 3l.—the total increment for all Europe being estimated at more than 200,000,000. It is only by a rough approximation at best that we can hope to sum up the hoard of gold and silver wrung by torture and terror from the unhappy Indian races, or dug from the mines of Peru and Mexico before their gradual exhaustion set in. Of the wealth poured into Europe later on from Brazil, more trustworthy statistics are to be had. In the sixty years from the opening of the mines to the year 1756, the yield of gold, as estimated by the Abbé Raynal, was about 96,000,000. The table carefully compiled by our author, after a critical sifting of the widely varying authorities, sets down 180,000,000. or more as the total produce of the Brazilian placers from their discovery to the present day. From Japan he gives reasons for believing that at least a hundred millions sterling of gold were imported into Europe within the seventeenth century. Adding these figures to the present time is estimated, of metal in the shape of coin. Of the quantity devoted to other purposes than money no means have been found of forming any trustworthy calculation. Mr. Jacob's estimate of 440 millions converted into articles of use and ornament, as well as of 175 millions lost by abrasion and casualties of all kinds, must be set down

converted into articles of use and ornament, as well as of 175 millions lost by abrasion and casualties of all kinds, must be set down as largely conjectural. Nor till late years could any more exact computation be formed of the flow of specie to the East. Mr. Del Mar's chapter on this subject shows the conflict of authorities thereon, out of which he extracts the approximate figure of 772,000,000l. as the grand total of gold and silver exported to India and China since the year 1559, against which is to be set some 172,000,000l. as the net counter flow from East to West.

The ratio or relation of value between gold and silver, at all times a variable quantity, has fluctuated within the range of history to wide extremes. A fragment of Agatharcides, a Greek geographer under Ptolemy VI., Philometor, King of Egypt (a.c. 181-145), speaks of the value of silver in Arabia being tenfold that of gold. The superior value of silver to gold in ancient times has been asserted by Boeckh, and is borne out by the tribute lists of Egyptian kings. The revulsion has been traced to the opening of the silver mines of Greece and the exchange by the Phoenician traders of their exuberant metallic produce for the freights of the East. Up to this time the gold sands of the Indian mines and the rich placer and quartz mines of Arabia—the land of Midian, as Captain Burton has lately urged, having been then exceptionally rich—had accumulated a vast mass of gold with comparatively little silver. The earliest authentic measure of the ratio, derived from the cuneiform inscription at Nineveh (Khorsabad) (circa 708 B.C.), gives 1 gold = 13 silver. In

Greece, about the 4th century B.C., the rate stood at I gold = 14 or 15 silver, the same probably holding good throughout Levantine Europe and Asia Minor. It narrowed by degrees, until, at the time America was discovered, it stood at about 11 throughout Europe. In England it was fixed by the Act of 22 Edw. IV. (1483) at 11'158; in North Germany, by the Lubeck Mint rule of 1463, at 11'60; in France, by the law of 1388, at 10'75; in Spain, by the law of 1483, at 11'675; in Italy it stood at about 10'5. Whilst for centuries before the discovery of America the Western ratio was narrowing from about 1'14 to 1'11, it widened in the East, under economic conditions traced by our author, from about 1'55 to 1'6 or 1'7, the two, however, reciprocally modifying each other as the intercourse between Europe and Asia became more intimate, until in the early part of the present century they came East, under economic conditions traced by our author, from about 1.55 to 1.6 or 1.7, the two, however, reciprocally modifying each other as the intercourse between Europe and Asia became more intimate, until in the early part of the present century they came practically to the same level. The subsequent fluctuations, though wide enough to cause grave fiscal embarrassments, and to give scope for an indefinite amount of speculative discussion among financiers and political economists, have at no time come near the tremendous differences of yore. Mr. Del Mar's tables and his sable historical analysis give the reader a clue to the intricacies of this important section of monetary philosophy, pointing him to the most signal landmarks in the record of the money market all over the world, and the authorities best qualified to deal with that most occult class of influences. Two powerful agencies in particular, which came into play together about the beginning of the last century, are to be taken into account in estimating the amount of change in the value of the precious metals in addition to the direct influence of production. These are, firstly, the extensive substitution of bank paper, and afterwards Government paper, for coin; and secondly, alterations of the metallic basis, or changes of standard, that in England taking place nominally in 1717. Our author points out how England, by becoming and remaining the banking centre of the world, has verified the sagacious prediction of Newton by making profit out of every exchange of bullion between other countries. For the world at large he sees the best policy to counteract this effect in adopting the single silver standard. How at the same time the silver standard is to be kept up, whilst the legal supports of the existing ratio throughout Europe are in process of being knocked away, and the threatened flood from Nevada seems likely to be swollen by the opening of the new Comstock adit, is a financial problem we would gladly have seen him handle with greater definitenes

THE NEW NATION.*

WE must confess that we are quite unable to do Mr. Morris
the justice which he demands. His big work is so complete and logical a whole, in his own opinion, that he protests
against any skipping or any casual peeping at isolated passages on
the part of readers and reviewers. A man may dip into Homer or plete and logical a whole, in his own opinion, that he protests against any skipping or any casual peeping at isolated passages on the part of readers and reviewers. A man may dip into Homer or Joe Miller, Shakspeare or Dickens, at any chance page, and be sure of finding something which he can understand. But an accidental plunge into either of Mr. Morris's five volumes will probably yield precisely the opposite result. The reader will be almost sure to find something which he cannot understand. After struggling for a time hither and thither in Mr. Morris's whirlpool of intellectual confusion, he will probably make a desperate clutch at Vol. I. and turn to p. I, where he will find that a danger-signal has been considerately erected by the author. "Notice"—observes Mr. Morris, "No part of this book should be read until all that precedes that part has been carefully perused, for the arrangement is such that it can only be thoroughly understood by those who read it straight through." The day of a reviewer only contains twenty-four hours; but, if it contained forty-eight, he might be excused far shrinking from reading every word of a book which is mainly made up of long slices of vocabulary, relieved here and there by intermittent passages of unadulterated fun. The third and fourth volumes are entirely filled with extracts from the dictionaries of "forty languages and several hundred dialects," the object of which is to "prove"—a word which is constantly on Mr. Morris's pen—that every bad word in every language is derived from the name of one of the generations of Shem. The tenth and eleventh chapters of the Book of Genesis appear to be about the only portions of the Bible upon which Mr. Morris sets his seal of authenticity; the remainder of the Old Testament has been corrupted by Moses and other Shemite scoundrels. The undoubted fact that the morally and physically leprous race of Shem has poisoned the whole world is proved by the etymological testimony of "the forty languages and several hundred dialects." Thus t

ing"; the "Polish Dzuma, the plague or pestilence"; and the "German Schwamm, a spongy excrescence on the body," to say nothing of the countless other words cited by our vocabularist, are all traceable to the disgust of the early inhabitants of the world for the vile person of the first son of Noah, "Shem, Sem, Sam, or Sm." The worst member of the whole "Shemite conspiracy," Moses, not only invented the legend of the Fall and the doctrine of original sin, but also the malicious story of Ham's implety and Noah's curse of Canaan. It was the object of Moses to shift the natural hatred of the human race for the infamous Shem upon the shoulders of the guileless Ham. The "Irish Ebar, dirt"; the "Arabic Abbar, fleas"; the "Greek Ubris, Ubreos, Ubrei, or Ybris, Ybreos, Ybrei, rank lust, lewdness"; with many other unpleasant words in other tongues, point back to the criminality of Shem's descendant, "Heber, Eber, Aber, Abr," who was the ancestor both of Moses and Pharaoh! The English word "Rake, a loose, disorderly man"; the "French Roue, an immoral person, and the Greek Rexis, Rexeos, Rexei, suppuration," owe their origin to the son of Heber, "Reu, Rao, Rehu, Regu, Ragau." Raggedness and Ragoût may perhaps be traced to the same Shemite source. Mr. Morris has made it a principle never to transfer to his own vocabularies the accents which he finds in his dictionaries, while he pays an exclusive honour to every Greek noun by always adding its centified and the same shemite way always adding its centified and the same shemite source. he pays an exclusive honour to every Greek noun by always adding its genitive and dative. We are surprised to learn that we owe our English words "Shrew," "Screw"—as applied to a stingy person—"Swear," "Scour," and "Scare," to one or other of the twenty-eight variations of the name of the Shemite woman, Sarah, twenty-eight variations of the name of the Shemite woman, Sarah, the wife of Abraham. Sarah's son Isaac has supplied our language with the word "Askeu, with a wry look, aside, sometimes indicating scorn or contempt," and also with the "English Assegai, or Assagai, an instrument of warfare among the Kairs," while the evil traditions of Isaac's character surviving amongst our ancestors led the Anglo-Saxons to call deceit Eswic, and a hypocrite Aeswica. The "English Ossuary, a charnel-house," the "Greek Oizuros, Oizura, woeful, miserable, wretched, sorry," the "Sanskrit Asra, a tear," and the "Hindu Hashr, the resurrection," proceed from "Israel, the alias of Jacob."

The author of these unique volumes was the subject of an exceptional Divine intervention before he was laid in his cradle. ceptional Divine intervention before he was laid in his cradle. When he was "only one hour old," the flames consumed the bed on which he was born; but the Almighty preserved the remarkable baby in order that he might live until the spring of 1880, and "complete the spinning of the threads of which this work is composed." He does not tell us where or by whom he was educated; but when he was about seventeen years old he "first formulated God," and wrote a part of this big work. He has been labouring upon it for nearly thirty-three years. "I find myself now," he says in his concluding pages, "finishing the last volume, while my wife and nine children are rejoicing that 'papa' has come to the end of his work." "My ambition," he adds, "is gratified. I have completed my task of heralding The New Nation, and, whether it turns out great or small, I know that I shall be considered its founder." Mr. Morris affords us no other glimpse of his biography. Perhaps we may be allowed to con-Nation, and, whether it turns out great or small, I know that I shall be considered its founder." Mr. Morris affords us no other glimpse of his biography. Perhaps we may be allowed to construct a conjectural chapter of the great man's life. At some time or other, as we are led to imagine from internal evidence supplied by his book, Mr. Morris came across the wild Anglo-Israelite theory of Mr. Hine. Moved to irritation or emulation, he determined to start a rival theory. Mr. Hine and his followers believe that the year One of the Golden Age will dawn upon the world as soon as Englishmen can be persuaded to adopt the delusion that they are not Englishmen, but are Israelites. Mr. Morris, on the contrary, has resolved to "prove" that the children of Ham are the elect people, the first-fruits of the humankind, the hope of the world, the Church of the future, or, as he prefers to call them, "the New Nation." All the evils in the earth have proceeded from "the baneful and mind-cramping influence of Shemite superstitions," and especially from Mohammedanism and Christianity, Each of these religions is composed of "a mixture of Paganism and Judaism, but the two are blended in different proportions, Christianity having the largest infusion of Paganism." "Paganism and Christianity are both idolatrous, and founded on a plurality of Gods; Judaism and Mahometanism are both violently opposed to idolatry, and worship but one God." Since both, however, are products of the corrupt Shemite spirit which has produced Judaism. Though the largest infusion of the products of the Corrupt Shemite spirit which has produced Judaism. Though the products of the Corrupt Shemite spirit which has produced Judaism. products of the corrupt Shemite spirit which has produced Judaism, Mr. Morris will have nothing to do with them. Though Mohammedanism is, on the whole, purer than Christianity, "it is poisoned, and rendered nugatory and valueless, by the false doctrine of a Devil," and also by the "equally false doctrine of Original Sin."

The regathering of the dispersed members of the body of Ham will set to rights the present disjointed world. When Ham is "liberated from the tyranny and superstition of Shem," a full development of the Hamite instincts" will "solve the social prodevelopment of the Hamite instincts" will "solve the social problems," will put an end to "the hysterical religion of sleek revivalists" and "the formalities of ritualistic masqueraders," and will even produce in Shemites and Japhetites "a character essentially human, but withal most loveable, courteous, generous, gentle, industrious, patient, yet noble in every sense." The great problem is, "How shall the Hamites be gathered together? How shall they know each other when they meet?" Mr. Morris fears "that there are not many Hamites left." The sanguinary Shemites "carried on the process of exterminating them when the population of the globe was small." He has discovered, however, by his study of "etymological science" the secret test by which a son or

^{*} The New Nation. By John Morris. 5 vols. London: John Morris.

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daughter of Ham can be infallibly detected. "To-day," he triumphantly exclaims, "no man of all the thousand million inhabitants of this earth, except myself, can put his hand on a single human being and say, 'This man is of the race of Ham!' No historian has ever recorded how they may be known. All the kings of the earth are powerless to order a single one of them to be produced. All the money in the world could not buy the secret of their identity. And yet all that holds civilization together, all that is most hopeful in humanity, is centred in them. Mystery! Mystery!" It is some comfort to know there are Hamites in England, and that they have white skins.

Before we reveal so much as we have been able to discover of the important secret, we must warn any person who is eagerly

that is most hopeful in humanity, is centred in them. Mystery! Mystery! It is some comfort to know there are Hamites in England, and that they have white skins.

Before we reveal so much as we have been able to discover of the important secret, we must warn any person who is eagerly hoping that he is a son of Ham not to be deceived by his surname. Mr. Morris himself belongs to the privileged race of Canaan—the great patriarch in whom, instead of in Abraham, all the families of the earth are to be blessed. The Cornish, or Old British, surname Morris, as he has lucidly demonstrated, is derived from "Moreh," the place at which the Shemite Abraham first halted in his aggression upon the land of Canaan. Mr. Morris takes Moreh to be the name of the head of his own tribe; he was "the Canaanite" who, according to Genesis xii. 6, "was then in the land." The English words "morris-dancing" and "merry" come from the same Hamite root, for "the Hamites are naturally merry," says their great pioneer, "though the fact is not mentioned in the Bible." Mr. Morris himself is a man of hilarity, and the future course of humanity, if it will put itself under his direction, is likely to be as full of joviality as it will be of goodness. He has given us a most interesting catalogue of English surnames which point back respectively to Hamite and Shemite progenitors. It is too long to copy in its entirety, but Professor Huxley may be pleased to learn that the anti-Semitic tendencies of David Hume are probably due to his descent from Ham, as a Hume is simply an Anglicised Ham. The late Sir John Goss was a son of the Hamite Caphad was his ancestor. The Cubitts come from the same stock as the Hamite builders of the Tower of Babel; Sir Philip and Algernon Sydney and Mrs. Siddons were children of the Hamite Sidon. The Gillotts and Colletts may be proud to know that they have the blood of the gigantic Goliath in their veins. A direct descendant of Shem came in course of time to be known in England as Sims. The name Black is evidently a corrupt

mames Anglicized."

But intermarriage and the thousand accidents of history have so confounded the races that the man with a Hamite name needs the warning, and the man with the Shemite name needs the comfort, of being informed that "the evidence of etymology," as applied to surnames, is insufficient to prove whether he belongs to the blessed or the cursed race. The Almighty has mercifully provided a surer test of "the ethnical distinction" betwirt the children of Shem and the children of Ham. Look at the case of "Mr. Barraud." He "was really of the tribe of Bered, and, as such, was a Shemite"; but he married a Hamite; his son followed his example; so did his grandson; hence in the course of time his progeny was partially cured. One child in a family may be a Hamite, while another is a Shemite, as one takes after the father and the otherafter the mother. But we are all in the dark, except our pioneer. We have "no historical clue," and "as the distinctions of nationality, language, religion, class, and even family names, are perfectly useless for the purpose of identification, there is nothing left but our bodies." The son of Moreh has discovered that all true Hamites, male or female, have a secret mark upon their bodies. No Semitic reprobate has this mark. It is seated, most appropriately, upon the thigh, haunch, hip, or ham. Two prophets, the British Merlin and the Shemite author of the Apocalypse, have had some presentiment of this truth. Mr. Morris refers us to Revelations xix. 16, and to "the Prophecy of Merlin, said to have been written in Cornish or British," and he quotes "a translation thereof published in Edinburgh two hundred years ago." Neither St. John nor Merlin, however, was so clearly illuminated upon the matter as Mr. Morris is. They were not such ardent students of the science of etymology. He has made the great discovery, and he exhibits thousands of etymological "proofs," that the word which stands for hips, thighs, haunches, or hams in "the forty languages and more than a thousand dialects,"

cannot but admire the stupendous diligence which he has expended in the elaboration of his eccentric gospel. He tells us that his excerpts from dictionaries were written upon more than 80,000 pieces of paper, and that no less than 49,472 pieces were sent to the printer. He thinks that as "folly is long-lived," an exceptionally wise man like himself ought to be patient. He has not rested content with laying down the dogmatic basis of his gospel, which has some curious points of likeness to the system of the Cainties; but he has taken steps "to give the matter a practical form." He has hired an office, or founded a temple of mystery, at 29 Paternoster Row, E.C., where the evangelical business of identification of Hamites is to be carried on. "I will undertake," says the hierophant, "the preliminary duty of personally inspecting those who have the mark, duly registering those who have it." Here too he will qualify a subordinate apostolate for the extension of the gospel; whose business it will be "to set going the machinery necessary for registering throughout the globe all those who have it." No fee is to be received by any registrar for inscribing names on "The List of the Remnants of Ham." The registered persons will be "privileged to join the New Nation"; and much good may it do them. If a sufficient number of copies are sent to the lunatic asylums, Mr. Morris will no doubt receive some replies to his concluding advertisement. "Those, then," he announces, "who first discover that they have on their bodies the faint streaks on which, to them, a new light now shines, are hereby informed that a notification thereof, addressed to me at the office, 29 Paternoster Row, London, E.C., will in due course be attended to, and acknowledged."

GREENHOUSE FAVOURITES.*

THE special merit of this handsome book is its combination of the practical with the ornamental. The author has evidently laid himself out to produce a safe guide for teachable amateurs; and we can unhesitatingly say that we have seldom come across a book of the kind more fit to stand the critical eye of those conversant with the arcana of floral science. Much care has been bestowed upon the nomenclature, derivation, and original habitate of the several plants as they pass in review; and, barring an occasional repetition, the directions for management and cultivation are commendably lucid and intelligible. It must of course be understood that the author nowhere claims to have produced an exhaustive treatise on some thirty tribes of ornamental plants, each of which has once and again been honoured with its own special treatise; but it may safely be said that whose inquires at this oracle will seldom or never go away with the grumbling comment that, whenever you consult authority on any given subject, it is ever to tell you cally what you know hefers.

it is sure to tell you only what you knew before.

Greenhouse Favourites leads off with the camellia, a showy and brilliantly beautiful plant, which amply repays the shelter of even a shabby and dingy greenhouse. Soon after its first introduction from China and Japan it lost its reputation for hardiness by succumbing in thousands to a severe winter, since which it has not been relied on to flourish out of doors; but not the less may its splendid blooms be enjoyed without any serious outlay of artificial heat in the most old-fashioned of greenhouse structures. Though mostly grown in pots, the camellia is best planted out in the greenhouse border, and always repays the exclusion of scorching sunshine, whether by top lights of rough plate-glass, roller-blinds, or tiffany, or even by the smeared size and whitening which, says the author, if not cleanly or elegant, is at least cheap and effectual. The fact of the camellia not needing free ventilation is its marked differentia from the light-and-air-loving epacris or erica, which would languish in an old, dark greenhouse. It is well to be able to raise the temperature to 60°, and in any case to keep out frost, though, when the wood is ripe, the plant will bear with impunity half a dozen degrees of it. Moistness of atmosphere is a vital necessity for the new wood, and, to avoid drought at the growing season, floor and walls cannot be too freely deluged with water. More air and less water should be given when the bloom buds show at the shoot-tips, and about the end of June all possible ventilation is desirable. Due precautions are suggested as to potting out the plants for ripening the new wood, and if different varieties of bloom are aimed at in January and February, it is important not to put out the camellias too early in the summer, avoiding the scorching suns. Camellias may be bloomed at all seasons; but fine flowers are to be got only between November and April. At the advent of the flowering season it is well to cleanse the foliage, sponging leaf after leaf with

[•] Greenhouse Favourites: a Description of Choice Greenhouse Plans. With Practical Directions for their Management and Cultivation. With Coloured Plates and Wood Engravings. London: Groombridge & Sons.

they may repay the trouble they cost as stocks to graft or inarch others on; and this is the easiest and the best way of grafting and propagating, the spring being the preferable season. The single red is the seed which makes the best stock. Budding is sometimes resorted to in summer or spring as an alternative, but inarching is generally preferred. The soil best suited for camellias, the prescriptions for potting and shifting, and all such niceties are duly given by our author. Amid the valuable list of earlier and later varieties, we may mention Giardino Santarelli, "large, full, with petals regularly imbricated." Its flowers are circular, double, tierlike, and last unusually long in bloom. The prevailing colour is a rich cherry red, with occasional patches of bluish white. Matteo Molfino is a finely imbricated, superbly coloured cerise and white. Comte de Toll is worthy of note as a beautifully formed flower of pure salmon colour.

Matteo Molfino is a mery importance, superso, and white. Comte de Toll is worthy of note as a beautifully formed flower of pure salmon colour.

Not less worthy of its high favour is the fuchsia, as to the introduction of which into this country (in 1788), through a sallor's wife at Limehouse, who cherished it as a souvenir of her husband "from foreign parts," and its naming from the celebrated German botanist, Leonard Fuchs, particulars are given in p. 18. The first introduced, F. Coccinea, came from Chili, and was speedily propagated; F. Lycioides followed in 1796 from the same country; F. Gracilis in 1823, and F. Microphylla, from Mexico, in 1828. Subsequent distinct species—e.g., Fulgens, Cormbifolia, Serratifolia, and Spectabilis—have followed suit, and in their turns have suffered eclipse from later novel varieties. The Fuchsia is propagated by seed and cuttings, though it is waste of time to sow the seeds, except hybridized, because of the tendency of these flowers to sport. To propagate by cuttings is one of the easiest of greenhouse tasks; they will strike almost at any season, and from green shoots or ripe wood alike. The best as one of the easiest of greenhouse tasks; they will strike almost at any season, and from green shoots or ripe wood alike. The best season is from spring to September. Firm young wood makes the best cuttings, and, if without artificial heat, half ripe wood is best. Fuchsias want abundant water at the roots and frequent the best cuttings, and, if without artificial heat, half ripe wood is best. Fuchsias want abundant water at the roots and frequent syringing over the foliage at most seasons. In winter they should never be quite dry, and the best temperature is 55° by night, and 65° by day. Great are the mysteries of shifting to different-sized pots, of stimulating various stages of growth by weak liquid manure, or a specified substitute for it (p. 25); but, as the author says, "Fuchsia training is very simple if you know their habits," and he spares no pains to promote such knowledge. Much, for instance, is to be learned from pp. 29-35 as to the best modes of training in bushes, pyramids, standards, and round pillars. Pillar training answers best for regularly trained varieties of robust habit of from twelve to twenty feet, well furnished with healthy shoots; and such varieties in a rich soil will be superior to the best pot plants. Wood engravings in pp. 36-7 illustrate two principal advantages of judicious hybridizing in the development of the fuchsia; but we must pass over these in order to give a glance at two or three other "greenhouse favourites," more or less choice and costly of culture. Of such are the Passion-flower and Tacsonia, noble climbers, from Peru and the forests of tropical America, peculiarly fit for houses with ample space for development, to drape columns, to festoon girder interspaces, and trail down rafters in natural pendant fashion. All the tribe, in fact, demand abundant space for roots as well as head. To prevent over-luxuriance a pit of from twelve to eighteen inches deep, and one to three feet square, is often resorted to, with brick, stone, or, best of all, slate sides, made invisible to the eye by a thinly spread layer of earth; and this method of pit-planting is desirable for other climbers in all promiscuously planted greenhouse borders. In passion-flower culture the extension system is best—namely, to train one main stem to a given height and then lead it along the roof space. In training spe roof space. In training specimens in pots the umbrella trellis and the vase-shaped baskets produce a good effect. The Tacsonias, Eriantha, and Buchanani (pp. 42-47), and the Passifloras are best propagated from cuttings, and these formed of tender shoots after Midsummer.

propagated from cuttings, and these formed of tender shoots after Midsummer.

A great favourite, for its lovely flower and glossy green foliage, discovered in Nepaul by Dr. Wallich, who from the hairs at the base of its petioles called it Hoteia barbata, is the flexile Spirea, largely aupplemented by Dr. Siebold's introductions from Japan. Such species as S. Japonica and Palmata are fit ornaments for greenhouse, conservatory, or sitting-room, and while the prevailing colour of the flowers is white, pink and red are also well represented. Another most beautiful winter-flowering plant, the Epacris, is a native of the Indian Archipelago, Australia, and Polynesia, and takes its name from its habitat, \$\displaystyle{a} \tilde{a} \tilde{a} \tilde{a} \tilde{b} \tilde{a} \tilde{b} \tilde{a} \tilde{b} \tilde{a} \tilde{b} \tilde{a} \tilde{b} \tilde{a} \tilde{b} \tilde{b} \tilde{b} \tilde{b} \tilde{b} \tilde{a} \tilde{b} \t

have proved a grand field for judicious hybridizing, with an eye to new varieties. But we must find room for a word on the versatile clemātis, the graceful "Virgin's Bower," which people would learn to pronounce if they would remember that it is derived from κλημα, κλημάτος, a vine branch. It is best bought in May, and treated as for outdoor culture, though, as "glorious specimen plants for the conservatory," our author truly avers, "no Pleroma or Franciscea can surpass, perhaps equal them." The clematis climbs everywhere on wall, wire, and round circular, pyramidal, square, or triangular trellis, and it may be propagated by grafting, cuttings, layering, or seed, the third process being the easiest and most common. most common.

most common.

It is needless to pursue further the interesting researches and descriptive directions of the author, though it might have been easy with due space to tell the tale of the Bouvardia, dear to Covent Garden Market and the cut-flower sellers for bouquet and button-hole; of the Pleroma sarmentosa, with its deep, violet-hued abundance of flowers, discovered by Humboldt in the cool valleys of Peru; or of the "Hoyas" from Java, Borneo, China, and the East Indies, in which one recognizes the umbelliferous, waxy clusters of the so-called honey-plants. We have said enough to indicate the value of a book which may be safely recommended to all who are interested in the subject of which it recommended to all who are interested in the subject of which it

SOME MINOR POETRY.

THE worse side of Queen Elizabeth's character has lately inspired two writers of dramatic verse with a fierce indignation. One of them, indeed, the author of Ginevra, has made Elizabeth a prominent and altogether hateful figure in both the tragedies which occupy his or her latest volume. The donnée of Palace and Prison is at once indicated by the motto chosen for it from John Skelton—"A smile from Mary on the scaffold is worth all the ribbons and garters that the prosperous Elizabeth can bestow." The play opens with a soliloquy from Sir Robert Cecil, who is discovered seated at a table covered with papers. The speech, it will be seen, is remarkable for a "nice derangement" of metaphors: metaphors:-

The spider's patient life is mine i'faith!
Weaving sly webs to catch unwary flies.
Proof gathers upon proof, and soon the net
Will close upon the foolish birds, that fain
Would peck the golden fruit that hangs beyond
The bars, regardless of the fowler's snares.

first six lines we have Cecil combining the part of a spider with that of a fowler who sets a snare, the nature of which it is difficult clearly to understand. In the next lines he becomes a butcher :-

A prison stays not their keen appetite.
Faugh! 'tis a butcher's work—smells of the shambles,
Yet must be done. Heaven, that cased my soul
Within this pigmy body to fret out
The scabbard with its use, forbade my star
Should climb the courtier's gilded path.

Should climb the courtier's gilded path.

It was perhaps a needless precaution to forbid a star to climb a gilded path, and it is unlucky that the author should have chosen to open his play with some of the worst lines that are to be found in it. One is reminded by them of some of the unhappiest performances of Nicholas Rowe and his school. The first two scenes are occupied with a good deal of talk about affairs in the North, and the second is laid at Norfolk House, the master of which is somewhat boldly represented as being a Roman Catholic. "It requires no great stretch of the imagination to suppose that the head of the noble house of Norfolk adhered to the faith of his forefathers," says the author in a note, and no doubt worse tricks have been played with history by successful poets and playwrights; but in this instance we fail to see that much is gained by the liberty. The third scene takes us to Sheffield Castle. Mary Stuart is of course represented in strong contrast to demoniacal Elizabeth. She tells, in some lines which run well and smoothly enough, a dream which she has had—

Last night I dreamed the daughter of Anne Boleyn

Last night I dreamed the daughter of Anne Be Sat on her throne, crowned, sceptred, and alone. I gazed on her from th' end of a long vista, On either side hung with rich cloth of gold, On which the arms of Scotland and of England Emblazoned shone, but quartered on one shield. She waved her sceptre, as to beckon me; As I drew near she rose and laid her crown On the red velvet cushion at her feet, Signed me to lay my head beside it there, And taking from her neck a string of pearls, Threw it around my own—but the light touch Sent a cold shiver thro' my shuddering frame, As if the headsman's axe lay on my throat! I waked—emblems of tears are pearls, they say, What may it bode, this dream? Last night I dreamed the daughter of Anne Boleyn

Queen Elizabeth is, as we have hinted, represented not only as a virago, but as a murderous fiend. She threatens Leicester, in a speech which is not without merit, for not declaring his ap-

^{*} Palace and Prison; and Fair Geraldine. Two Tragedies. By the Author of "Ginevra" and "The Duke of Guise." London: C. Kegan Paul & Co.

A Queen's Love. A Drama in Five Acts. By M. W. Hilles, Author of "Ornano," &c. Keighley: E. Craven.

Riquet of the Tuft: a Love Drama. London: Macmillan & Co.

proval of the edict which holds Mary responsible for her adherents' acts; and she deliberately proposes the secret assassination of Mary, first to Lady and afterwards to Lord Shrewsbury. The third act, in which this takes place, ends with some odd lines:—

Her life or mine, ay, there's the rub. So be't! I must now either strike or be struck down; The dead don't bite, so must the thing be done.

In the fourth act Elizabeth attempts, in a singularly clumsy way, to persuade first Sir Amyas Paulet and then Sir Drew Drury to undertake the secret murder of Mary; and thus it will be seen to undertake the secret murder of Mary; and thus it will be seen the author will not allow her the possession of even the most ordinary tact and judgment. The last scene of this act is by far the best piece of work in the play. It passes at Fotheringay Castle, where Mary arrays herself in royal state to receive the warrant of execution which she feels is coming. In her speeches there are some really good lines, which, however, depend so much upon the context that it would be difficult to do justice to them by quotation. As much may be said also of her speeches in the last set; and at the point where Kennedy is arranging her headlast act; and at the point where Kennedy is arranging her head-dress there is an excellent touch—

The last pin pricks me; strange that in such hour The quivering flesh recoils from pang; as 'twere The scorpion's sting of death.

The play ends with a glimpse of Elizabeth's grandeur at the news

of the Armada's coming.

of the Armada's coming.

In Fair Geraldine there is at once less to blame and less to praise than in Palace and Prison. The real interest of the play turns on the relations between the Queen and Essex, and the piece ends practically—it would perhaps be better if it ended actually—with her hearing the news of his execution. In the one scene in which she appears after this the author has borrowed, perhaps unconsciously or forgetfully, an odd effect from Mr. Tennyson's Queen Mary:—

Hunsdon. Let me entreat Your grace to rest on yonder seat.

Queen. Green. The throne? Tis not empty yet—lower, lower still, Here on the ground.

Here on the ground.

There is less reality about the strange character which the author has called Queen Elizabeth in this play than in the one which precedes it. Her speeches are riddled in both plays with "ha!" and "nay!" and "marry come up!" and "humph!" and "go to!" but these trivial devices, in Fair Geraldine at least, do but defeat their own end. The author will do well in future to reflect that the mere sticking on to his dialogue of snippets from Elizabethan phraseology is a vain thing, which can only produce an incongruous and patchwork-like effect. As the Queen's character is made nearly, if not quite, as bad in Fair Geraldine as in Palace and Prison, a strange effect is produced by the encomiums pronounced Pricon, a strange effect is produced by the encomiums pronounced upon her by Raleigh, Lee, and Hunsdon, when they think she is dead. The verse, for the most part, runs smoothly enough, but the play wants life.

the play wants life.

A Queen's Love deals, like Fair Geraldine, with the story of Elizabeth and Essex, and deals with it in much the same spirit; but the workmanship is far inferior. The play opens with the incident of Raleigb, who is represented as being already a knight, putting down his cloak for the Queen to tread on—an incident which has nothing whatever to do with the action, such as it is, of the piece. The general quality of the performance may be judged by one extract from a speech of Elizabeth's:—

Essex I love, and all the love I've borne
To Licester, Raleigh, and all else beside
That wait upon my smiles, can equal this! (sic)
Nay, 'tis not an atom to the boundless love
I bear to him! It shall be so, I swear:
Within an hour from this shall Essex kneel,
Her: at my feet, the king of England's queen,
And I shall love him with my latest breath!
Cecil would have me send him to the block
For his late treasons' gainst the Throne and State.
Al! I would rather lay my own head there
Than see him perish! In his life I live.
And should he fall, oh, then farewell indeed
To throne, and state, and power, and all its pomp!
Essex, my love, for thee alone I live!
of the Tuft: a Love Drama, is rightly nam

Riquet of the Tuft: a Love Drama, is rightly named in part only. It contains a good deal of "elegant diction" and long-drawnout prattle about love, but it is in no sense dramatic. There is much metaphor and simile, more or less laboured, with some pretty conceits, and a large amount of description. Of this a not unfavourable specimen may be quoted:—

able specimen may be quoted:—

The weather changed and with it changed my mind;
And the rain fell and all the welkin roared
From east to west with thunder as I rode,
Slow climbing up the gorge, and heard below
The swollen river, like a beast of prey,
Howl louder than the thunder—and a darkness
Clutched at my heart. But I crept on and came
Where the gaunt cliffs had narrowed to a gate,
Through which I hardly passed, and found a plain
Full of marsh streams, winged-round by snow-streaked hills,
And lonely as a broken heart. At last
I touched the summit of the pass, and lo!
The west was like a crystal water clear.
Behind me rolled the storm, and at my feet
An ancient forest seemed to fill the world.

The author has varied the old story by a device which does not strike us as particularly happy. According to him, Riquet has the gift of being able to make "the woman who loves him as wise and as witty and pleasant as himself." To match the witty and

noble, but deformed, Prince there is of course a dull beauty, upon noble, but detormed, Frince there is of course a dull beauty, upon whom he bestows his gift, but who does not at first fulfil the conditions of its bestowal, which is inconsistent. In a scene between them, by the by, the author adopts the common mistake that Galatea was actually the name of Pygmalion's statue—a mistake for which, so far as we know, Herr Suppé, or his librettist, is responsible. His work contains some prettyish, and even pretty, passages; but is for the most part characterless and dull.

FRENCH LITERATURE.

FEW more interesting volumes have been recently contributed to the study of the early seventeenth century in France, and especially to the all-important history of Richelieu, than that which M. Zeller has just brought out (1). The author has proved his which M. Zeiler has just brought out (1). The author has proved his historical competence, not merely by some useful works on early French history, but by a detailed examination of the original, and for the most part unpublished, authorities for this very period in his study on Le Connétable de Luynes. The present volume might, had M. Zeiler been intent upon a sensational title, have been headed Entre Luynes et Richelieu, for it is exactly that remarkable gap in the fortunes of France which he fills up. Between Luynes—who the fortunes of France which he fills up. was altogether a creature of the King's-Between Luynes -and Richelieu, who, as was altogether a creature of the King's—and Richelieu, who, as this book goes to prove, was very much the reverse, there was a singular interregnum, during which the Bishop of Luçon was slowly making his way, assisted by the Queen-Mother, who in her turn, like most of his supporters, was destined to regret having supported him. The names of the nominal Prime Ministers of France during this period are, as M. Zeller very justly observes, half-forgotten names. Henry—the second Henry—of Condé, the Chancellor Brâlart, his son Puisieux, and the financier La Vieu-villa are not persons about whom the historic Muse has hitherto ville, are not persons about whom the historic Muse has hitherto much busied herself. Yet the period was an important one, and perhaps more than any other space of time determined the future policy of the great statesman who was biding his opportunity, and who, by a happy distortion of facts, was able to present himself as a liberator of Europe against the ambition—in itself a far less dangerous ambition—of the House of Austria. The special sources of information which M. Zeller has consulted are three—all of them, a very least that the Line Lines. They are the Paral Nursic as usual at that time, Italian. They are the Papal Nuncio, Ottavio Corsini, the Venetian Ambassador, Giovanni da Pesaro, and the Florentine Ambassador, Giovanni Battista Gondi. The extraordinary minuteness with which Italian resident Ministers reported the affairs of foreign States in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries is sufficiently well known, and the three here laid under contribution are not inferior to others of their bind.

teenth centuries is sufficiently well known, and the three here laid under contribution are not inferior to others of their kind.

M. Blaze de Bury (2) has collected a considerable number of articles which during the last fourteen years he has written on the great musical-theatrical composers of the last and the present century. Gluck, Mozart, Rossini, Weber, Hérold, Halévy, Verdi, Gounod, Bizet, Berlioz, and Wagner compose his team. Bizet and Halévy may seem to some people to be rather strangers in their company, while Auber and Meyerbeer might very well take their place; but critics must of course be allowed to a certain extent their freedom of selection of the things to be criticized. M. Blaze de Bury has the courage of his opinions, and it is at least. Blaze de Bury has the courage of his opinions, and it is at least to be said in his favour that he does not stun his reader with technicalities after the fashion of some musical critics in this and other countries. At the same time it must be said that his style is by no means of the purest. There are painful efforts at liveliness, and every now and then sentences occur which would make any severe critic of French prose gnash his teeth. For instance, we open the volume at hazard, and come upon the following words:—"Richard Wagner est sans aucun doute une individualité dans l'histoire de la musique, mais vouloir faire de lui la plus dans l'histoire de la nusique, mais vouloir faire de lui la plus haute personnification de l'art présent et futur constitue une de ces plaisanteries qu'il faut laisser aux gens doués de crânes assez durs pour venir à l'instar des béliers antiques battre en brèche les temples sacrés des anciens maîtres." With the sentiment expressed in these lines we have nothing to do, but the clumsiness of the manner in which it finds expression cannot be passed over. Tha sentence is bad German or worse English translated literally into French. It is not French (as French sentences of the best model go) at all or in any way. go) at all or in any way.

M. Alphonse Karr is sufficient in his own person to furnish

materials for a monthly review of French literature. It would be a little interesting to see whether the reprinting of the contribu-It would be a little interesting to see whether the reprinting of the contribu-tions of Englishmen to daily and weekly journals would be recog-nized by public opinion as a legitimate proceeding. Tradition has it that French literary journeywork is, as a rule, so much better done that it deserves translation from the files of the newspaper to the shelves of the library. Perhaps it may be so; but we must confess that we find some difficulty in assigning to this volume of "Buzzings" (3) any place in perpetuity on the shelves of the most indulgent library. It is not that the matter of it is bad; quite the contrary. But it is matter purely ephemeral. In 1874 as now M. Karr was firmly convinced of the falsity of the way in which French Republicans were leading France, and he was

way in which French Republicans were leading France, and he was not in the least afraid of making known his conviction. It may be added that some expressions of his about M. Gambetta Richelieu et les ministres de Louis XIII de 1621 à 1624. ller. Paris: Hachette.

(2) Musiciens du passé, du présent, et de l'avenir. Par H. Blaze de ury. Paris : Calmann Lévy.
(3) Bourdonnements. Par Alphonse Karr. Paris : Calmann Lévy.

are singularly appropriate even now when circumstances have are singularly appropriate even now when circumstances have changed with a rapidity which we may feel sure is by no means pleasing to M. Karr himself. But still the matter of this volume is wholly and exclusively the matter of leading articles, and leading articles, as the most assiduous composers of them would admit, are neither intended nor suited for book publication. Attacks on Marshal Bazaine, for instance, are nowadays of interest, and will from this time into eternity be of interest, only to the person who sets himself to write the history of the Septennat and the events which led to it. Now the person who sets himself to write the history of the Septennat can find M. Karr's articles in the files of the newspapers where they originally appeared. The white the files of the newspapers where they originally appeared. The process of looking over such files is sufficiently dreary for those who have their account to find in it. For those who have not, it is, to say the least, painful to expect a volume of M. Karr's well-known chat on things in general, and to find only political talk of

a somewhat amateur description.

as somewhat amateur description.

The ninth volume of M. Louis Blanc's English sketches (4) contains some interesting letters. Accident has collected in the volume a variety of subjects, some of which have an attraction independent of the circumstances of the moment, and some of which have, by a strange coincidence, a remarkable reference to the affairs of to-day. Among these latter must be classed M. Blanc's letters on the Eastern Question, which may be consulted with not a little advantage by those who wish to see the prophecies of the policy of the Gladstone Government of to-day contained in the conduct of the Gladstone Government of 1869. It so happens, too, that Mr. Gladstone himself fills a large space in M. Louis Blanc's inthe volume. His explanations of his Irish Church programme had not then the piquancy which they attained during the Midlothian volume. His explanations of his Irish Church programme had not then the piquancy which they attained during the Midlothian campaign; but they were odd enough to surprise M. Louis Blanc. The celebrated outbreak of Mr. Bright against the Bishops because their income was on the whole double that of his own office surprised and shocked M. Blanc in a manner creditable to his sense of decency, and to his power of perceiving faults in those of his own side. An interesting obituary of Ernest Jones is to be found here, and one not much less interesting of that good servant of English literature, Robert Bell. Some considerations on the House of Lords, written as they of course are in a Radical sense, are instructive to read nowadays, because they recognize the absurdity of attempting to reconstitute that House in the sense of a mere elective Second Chamber. Lastly the articles on the Harvard and attempting to reconstitute that House in the sense of a mere elec-tive Second Chamber. Lastly the articles on the Harvard and Oxford rowing-match are not to be passed over, because they show how, even at this time, after his long residence among us, the author was outside of what may be called the real ideas and principles of Englishmen. Fortunately none of M. Blanc's special hobbies come into this volume, and therefore he cannot display his

hobbies come into this volume, and therefore he cannot display his powers of hobby-riding.

In publishing the Letters of the Présidente Ferrand (5), with certain explanatory additions and comments, including the curious Histoire des amours de Cléante et de Belise, M. Asse has not rendered quite so much of a service to French literature as he has done in some preceding publications. The letters, and still more the history, are little more than an exhibition of that commerce rampant de soupris et de flammes which Racine had rendered fashionable, and which Corneille had so admirably denounced a little before Cléante and Belise began to sigh and flame for each other. The lady was the wife of the President Ferrand, and was of Italian extraction: the gentleman was the Baron de Breteuil, a other. The lady was the wife of the President Ferrand, and was of Italian extraction; the gentleman was the Baron de Breteuil, a name then and afterwards sufficiently well known among the French aristocracy of the more recent kind. The weakness of the late seventeenth century could hardly be better exhibited than in these letters; but there is little trace in them of its strength. A reader who should read them knowing little else of the time would enjoy Molière more than ever; but he would hardly be able to understand La Bruyère and Saint-Simon, still less La Rochefoucauld and Saint-Evremond. Flirtation of the most artificial kind, without fantastic grace and without serious passion, is the staple

without fantastic grace and without serious passion, is the staple of the book, and a very little of it goes a very long way.

M. Semichon (6), who, besides being a lawyer and a former Conseiller-Général, has been in his time an Inspector of children receiving public aid in the Department of Seine Inférieure, has had exceptional opportunities for writing a history of foundlings. The only objection that can be made to his book is that it is in some sort too cursory, and does not fill out its abundant stores of statistical and historical information with sufficient description and detail. The book is not confined to France, but emplaces a view of statistical and historical information with sufficient description and detail. The book is not confined to France, but embraces a view of the systems of rendering assistance to deserted children, or children whose parents are unable to support them, adopted in all modern countries, besides a sketch of the treatment of infants in ancient times. M. Semichon makes the most of the infanticide which beyond all doubt was a blot upon almost every pre-Christian civilization, and he does not hesitate to expose the drawbacks of the system of Tours or unlimited institutions for the reception of foundings, which till recently prevailed in France. On the whole, the book is likely to be a useful one to the student of modern economics and social philosophy.

economics and social philosophy.

Anybody who is in search of an uncomfortable book may be recommended to Leopardi's prose Opuscula (7), as translated, for

the benefit of those who do not read Italian, by M. Dapples. the benefit of those who do not read Italian, by M. Dapples. The translation is a very good one, and one feels few of the usual drawbacks of reading a book in a language in which it was not written. The pieces are for the most part short, and are couched in the form of dialogues, satirical fables, or other suchlike things. They have abundance of imagination, as indeed might be expected in the prose work of a great poet, and not a little of the peculiar burlesque which for Italians replaces English humonr and French wit. Léopardi, it should be observed, is becoming a favourite subject with French translators. It is rather odd that the restless persons who are always longing to "English" something should have so long left him alone.

M. de Kaufmann's pamphlet (8) is a short treatise in a moderately.

long left him alone.

M. de Kaufmann's pamphlet (8) is a short treatise in a moderately but still very definitely protectionist sense on the advantages of a Zollverein for Central Europe, from which Russia, America, and England are to be excluded "as the wolf from the fold."

Five parts of the new edition of M. Vapereau's valuable Dictionary (9) bring it up to the biography of Mr. Tennyson, and leave but little to be done to complete the issue. As far as the French extiples are concerned, there is no foult to find with the weaking articles are concerned, there is no fault to find with the working up; matters so recent as M. Renan's Hibbert Lectures being duly noticed. The foreign items are naturally not quite so well attended to, yet even here the Dictionary contrasts very favourably with most books of the kind which have been put forth in any other country.

M. Dumas informs us that *Tiphaine* (10), to which he has contributed a preface, is not his own, but is a true tale by one of his friends who has not allowed even M. Calmann Lévy to know his identity. Politeness demands that we should give credence to friends who has not allowed even M. Calmann Lévy to know his identity. Politeness demands that we should give credence to this statement, and resist the temptation to believe that M. Dumas has written a book for the sake of attaching thereto a preface in his well-known style. As a book in the mechanical and strict sense of the term, Tiphaine deserves that all men should speak all good things of it. It is printed in a pleasing small quarto, or rather square 16mo., on paper of a super-excellent kind, and with an infinite quantity of margin. As a story we do not know that we can say quite so much for it. The principal reflection that it suggests to the English reader is that the autobiographic hero was a consummate cad. As a young man he had made the acquaintance of a little girl who has a large fortune. He loses sight of her, and she marries a vaurien who is killed in a duel. Then he meets her again, and she very frankly tells him that she, not to put too fine a point on it, loves him. Instantly he, who is young no longer, thinks that she is inviting him to consider himself her lover in the French, not the English, sense. She perceives it, and very sensibly withdraws, promptly marrying somebody else, and abstracting from the coxcomb-hero not merely herself, but twenty millions French—that is to say, nearly a million English—as well. The verdict of course is "serve him right," and M. Dumas is not altogether far from echoing this verdict. He does not, however, seem to know how near he is, and it is much to be feared that his countrymen will not draw the moral. If anything could make us believe in the genuineness of the story, it would be M. Dumas's remarkable abstention from pointing this moral, which it would seem is as obvious as anything can well be. In another writer the argument would not count. But M. Dumas is a preface-writer or nothing.

Poverina (11), which may be taken without rashness to be the work of the lady whose Carmela was recently translated into

Poverina (11), which may be taken without rashness to be the work of the lady whose Carmela was recently translated into English, is a sufficiently graceful and pathetic story of Italian peasant life in Lucca. The ways of the inhabitants of that frugal peasant life in Lucca. The ways of the inhabitants of that frugal province, their occasional emigration for a few years to South America in order to get together a modest capital, and their subsequent return to their homes to buy a few acres of vineyard and oliveyard, and live the rest of their lives placidly with parrots and lories flying about them to remind them of the land of their exile, are pleasantly sketched in the opening pages. Poverina is a sort of foundling, a child saved at the point of death from its parents by a benevolent woman who goes under the name of La Streya from her apparently uncanny powers of bringing up weakly infants. a benevolent woman who goes under the name of La Strega from her apparently uncanny powers of bringing up weakly infants. How La Poverina grows up and develops a magnificent voice; how she falls in love with a greedy ne'er-do-weel, whose one idea is to make profit out of her; and the rest of her fate, readers may learn with satisfaction to themselves from the pages of the book. Les mouches du coche (12) is an ambitious story in which the author has striven to unite the political novel with the sketch of the vie de province. The result is not of the happiest, the satire being for the most part laboured, and the author's Republican ardour apparently producing in him that insensibility to the really ludicrous which Republican ardour somehow has a knack of producing. His penultimate page contains a quaint example of this. "Les nouveaux époux," says he, "au lieu d'aller fouler les sentiers banals de la Suisse ou de l'Italie, avaient choisi la libre et forte Amérique pour y fêter les premières joies de leur la libre et forte Amérique pour y fêter les premières joies de leur union." In paying this compliment to free and strong America, M. Jacolliot has apparently forgotten that ten days of sea

⁽⁴⁾ Dix ans de l'histoire d'Angleterre. Par Louis Blanc. Tome Ix.

Paris: Calmann Lévy.

(5) Lettres de la Présidente Ferrand. Par Eugène Asse. Paris: Charpentier.

⁽⁶⁾ Histoire des enfants abandonnés. Par E. Semichon. Paris : Plon.
(7) Opuscules et pensées. Par G. Léopardi. Traduit par A. Dapples.
Paris : Germer-Baillière.

⁽⁸⁾ L'association douanière de l'Europe centrale. Par R. de Kaufmann. aris: Guillaumin et Cie.

⁽⁹⁾ Dictionnaire universel des contemporains. Par G. Vapereau. Fascicules 5-9. Paris: Hachette.
(10) Tiphaine. Avec une préface par A. Dumas fils. Paris: Calmann Lévy.

⁽¹¹⁾ Poverina. Par la Princesse Olga Cantacuzène-Altiéri. Paris: Cal-ann Lévy.

⁽¹²⁾ Les mouches du coche. Par Louis Jacolliot. Paris : Dentu.

intervene between that paradise and effete Europe. newly wedded pair were not good sailors (and very few Frenchmen or Frenchwomen are), it seems odd that they should have chosen to "fêter les premières joies de leur union" by ten days of sea-sickness. *Prégalas* (13) is a book not exactly novel in its main idea, but executed with a certain amount of power. The invention which exerts a sinister influence on the fortune and family of the inventor has been heard newly weum influence on the fortune and launly of the handling justifies the selection of an old theme, and some of the characters, especially that of the faithful clerk Bidoche, deserve a good deal of praise.

M. de Letorière has read his Feuillet well, and not unwisely. The story of La Marquise de Trévilly (14) is decidedly of the school of the author of M. de Camors; but it is in no sense a servile copy. Moreover, M. de Letorière is possessed of the faculty which used to be one of the commonest among French writers, and which is now, on the contrary, one of the most rare. He can which used to be one of the commonest among French writers, and which is now, on the contrary, one of the most rare. He can really produce mots of some sparkle, and they enliven his pages considerably. It is only to be regretted that the sentiment of the book is somewhat morbid, and that the machinery of telling the story is to the last degree absurd. A young man meets an older friend in Paris, and the old friend first indulges in some exceedfriend in Paris, and the old friend first indulges in some exceedingly stale objurgations of the other sex, and then, to justify himself, takes the young man home and tells him a mortally long story—in fact, the whole book. This introduction is not in the least necessary, and might have been cut away with no loss and much gain. On n'entre pas (15) is a collection of short stories, or rather aketches, of the socially satirical order. They are neither very good nor very bad; their chief fault being the selection of very hackneyed subjects, and the adoption of a too elaborately facetions method of treatment. L'héritière (16) is apparently a translation of Miss Florence Montgomery's Seaforth, though no translator is mentioned. There is a great oddity in the recurrence of the phrase "Le noble lord," the translator not being aware that this phrase is only in place in Parliamentary and other formal proceedings. is only in place in Parliamentary and other formal proceedings.

(13) Prégalus. Par E. Texier et C. La Senne. Paris: Calmann Lévy.
(14) La Marquise de Trévilly. Par Le Vicomte Georges de Letorière.
Paris: Charpentier.

(16) L'héritière. Par Florence Montgomery. 2 vols. Paris : Calmann Lévy.

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